

The Social Studies

VOLUME XLI, NUMBER 6

Continuing *The Historical Outlook*

OCTOBER, 1950

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EDITORIAL AND BUSINESS OFFICE: 809-811 North 19th Street, Philadelphia 30, Pa.
Subscription \$2.50 a year, single numbers 35 cents a copy.

Published monthly, from October to May inclusive, by McKinley Publishing Co., 809-811 North 19th St., Philadelphia, Pa.

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VOLUME XLI, NUMBER 6

OCTOBER, 1950

The Social Studies

Contemporary Trends In World Politics

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As the twentieth century reaches its halfway mark, the basic trends in the international politics of the postwar world are becoming more and more evident in the succession of daily events. Although the forces in the contemporary scene are diverse and often contradictory, certain basic tendencies indicate the general pattern of world politics. Avoiding the pitfalls of the Pollyannas and Cassandras, the student of international behavior must impartially analyze the trends of the present.

The problem of identifying the "signs of the times" is complicated by the difficulties of terminology, the multiplicity of world events, and the particular academic background of the analyst. Each period in international politics has its own terminology. In the years before the First World War, expressions like Concert of Europe, Triple Alliance, Triple Entente, Dreikaiserbund, Tunisian Pear, and Italia Irredenta were frequently used; in the brief era between the First and Second World Wars terms like the Axis, the New Order, Co-Prosperity Sphere, appeasement, League of Nations, Comintern, and Little Entente were common. The vocabulary of the present period is characterized by a galaxy of new expressions—cold war, Titoism, containment, Cominform, polarization of power, iron curtain, veto, United Nations, Truman Doctrine, Benelux, and Marshall Plan. Amid the phraseology of the present, the identification of basic trends in international politics is difficult and even hazardous. Nevertheless, it can be asserted that all such expressions are primarily manifestations of basic political behavior.

Another factor creating difficulty for the analyst is the multiplicity of world events.

Today international politics truly occupies a global stage; no longer does a continent like Europe monopolize the world scene. Under these conditions which events are globally significant and which have only localized importance? Considerable stress in the postwar world has been placed on the relations of the "Big Five," often reduced to the super-powers of the United States and the Soviet Union. Yet events in such areas as Palestine, Kashmir, and Indonesia can vitally affect the interests of a great part of the world. Furthermore, an event that may be highly significant at a given moment may lose much of its importance in the perspective of time. The assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand on June 28, 1914 at Sarajevo would not have assumed such significance in history if the crime had not been the occasion leading to the outbreak of the First World War. As a consequence, the historian of the past has a decided advantage over the scholar specializing in the present.

Finally, the analyst of contemporary world politics is limited by his academic background. The study of international politics is the pursuit of a field of knowledge, not yet rigidly defined, that can be approached from a number of academic entrances. The diplomatic historian, the political geographer, the international economist, the political scientist, the social psychologist, and the cultural anthropologist all make a contribution to the general study of international politics. This contribution is particularly well shown at meetings of specialists in the field and in its related disciplines. A case in point is the valuable summer seminars on international relations conducted by the Brookings Institution and attended by specialists

throughout the United States. Obviously no scholar can be equally competent in all the academic disciplines related to the study of international relations. Consequently the work of one person in the field of world politics tends to reflect his own training. Nevertheless, the scholar who devotes his whole time to the study of international relations *per se* is better able to evaluate world events than the person who is primarily an economist, historian, geographer, or political scientist.

The criteria selected for the identification of a major trend in modern world politics must be somewhat arbitrary. Three prerequisites, however, stand out among the many possibilities. In the first place, the trend must be worldwide, embracing not merely a continent but a major portion of the world. Although it would be impossible to find a trend that directly affects every political unit of the globe, a substantial part of the world should be directly influenced. In the second place, the trend must be a relatively influential factor in world politics. It must be a factor that the vast majority of the foreign offices of the world have to take into careful consideration. And finally, the trend must not be limited to a week, a month, or a year. It must give promise of enduring a relatively long period of time.

With considerable caution, the following five trends in modern world politics may be presented as worthy of consideration:

1. The increased domination of world politics by two super-powers—the United States and the Soviet Union.
2. The development of regionalism on an extensive scale in many parts of the world.
3. The weakening of the United Nations Organization as an effective agency of world peace.
4. The intensification of the search for national security through atomic and other armament.
5. The expansion of nationalism and the liquidation of dependent areas in a large part of the world.

POLARIZATION OF POWER

The politics of the postwar world has been increasingly influenced by the foreign policies of the United States and the Soviet Union, the two dominant and rival powers of the era. The

hopes for one world have been shattered on the political icebergs of super-power politics. Yet the expressions, "polarization of power" or "bipolar world," indicating the distribution of world power between Moscow and Washington, have possibly gained more popularity than they deserve since no absolute distribution of global power between the Soviet Union and the United States has occurred. In fact, a significant part of the world actually represents a shaded area not directly subject to the leadership of Moscow or Washington. This portion would include a large part of southwestern, southern, and southeastern Asia and certain states like Spain and Yugoslavia. Nevertheless, the greater part of the world does tend to follow the guidance of Moscow or Washington. Most of Latin America, the Atlantic Community, and the British Commonwealth of Nations, Western Germany and Japan, and numerous other states from the Philippines to Liberia belong in the Western camp, while the Soviet Union and its satellites in Europe and Asia, now possibly including China, make up the Eastern bloc.

The continent of Europe especially mirrors the struggle between the East and the West. Table A reflects this conflict by indicating the membership of the states of Europe in major international organizations.

TABLE A
X = membership*

Country	North Atlantic Treaty	Brussels Pact	Council of Europe	Marshall Plan OEEC	Soviet Bloc	Cominform (U.S.S.R.)	United Nations
Albania					x		x
Austria	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Belgium							
Bulgaria			x	x	x	x	x
Czechoslovakia			x	x	x	x	x
Denmark	x		x	x	x		x
Eastern Germany			x	x	x		
Finland							
France	x	x	x	x			x
Greece			x	x			x
Hungary			x	x	x	x	x
Iceland	x		x	x	x		x
Ireland			x	x	x		x
Italy	x		x	x	x		x
Luxembourg	x	x	x	x	x		x
Netherlands	x		x	x	x		x
Norway	x		x	x	x	x	x
Poland					x	x	x
Portugal	x			x		x	x
Rumania					x	x	x
Soviet Union					x	x	x
Spain					x	x	x
Sweden				x	x		x
Switzerland				x	x		x
Turkey				x	x		x
United Kingdom	x	x	x	x	x		x
Western Germany			x	x	x		x
Yugoslavia						x	

* Western Germany and the Saar may be formally admitted as associate members in the Council of Europe.

Table A indicates that the majority of the states of Europe are members of the United

Nations. As all of these were charter members of the Organization with the exception of Iceland and Sweden, the international rivalry between the East and the West would logically be shown in the list of rejected candidates. Here the Soviet Union has vetoed in the Security Council the applications for membership from Italy, Portugal, Ireland, Finland, and Austria; and the Western powers by abstentions in voting have prevented the admission of Albania, Bulgaria, Hungary, and Rumania. The table also shows that the United Kingdom and France constitute the key European membership in the North Atlantic Treaty, Brussels Pact, Council of Europe, and Marshall Plan and that Italy is a party to all of them with the exception of the Brussels Pact. The Soviet Union and its satellites do not participate in any of these organizations; but membership in the Russian-dominated Cominform, which is unofficial, includes the Communist parties of Italy and France.

The division of much of the world between two great rival ideologies strengthens the concept of the polarization of power. In the popular mind, Moscow stands for "communism" and Washington for "democracy." The ideological schism between East and West is, of course, not absolute, as democracy is subject to various degrees of interpretation in the Western world while communism has a number of conflicting apostles. For instance, the democracy of the United States, Argentina and India is as contrasting as the communism of the Soviet Union, Yugoslavia, and Mao Tze-tung's China. The present battle of the ideologies, however, is as genuine as the clash between the fascist and democratic philosophies in the last war. The victories of the Chinese Communists are approved in Moscow and deplored in the West. The decision of Italy in the national election of April, 1948, to remain within the democratic camp was warmly received by the Western states but bitterly criticized by the Communists. The political battle for the control of the minds of men will not subside in the near future.

The concept of the polarization of power is possibly a new form of the old balance of power. In the latter case the usual situation involved a number of allied powers balanced against a rival combination of states such as the Triple

Alliance of Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy versus the Triple Entente of Britain, France, and Russia. In the case of polarization, the power on each side overwhelmingly rests with a super-power, the United States or the Soviet Union. The Second World War destroyed, at least for a while, the power position of Germany, Japan, and Italy and greatly diminished that of France and Britain. The emergence of a resurgent Germany and Japan from the ashes of defeat, the revival of a strong France and Britain in the firmament of world politics, or the appearance of a powerful China and India in Asia might produce a balance of power more similar to the Triple Alliance-Triple Entente relationship. Yet the probable disparity in power for some time to come between the Soviet Union and the United States on the one hand and any of their present or potential allies on the other is certain to modify for many years the old conventional balance of power concept.

The polarization of power, even in a modified degree, is likely to produce either global war or world peace. Isolated wars between two powers like the Franco-Prussian War or the Russo-Japanese War are past, although conflicts between weak states like Costa Rica and Nicaragua or Haiti and the Dominican Republic may occur. Even wars of the latter category are exceedingly dangerous to the peace of the world as the security of many of the small states is considered the national interest of the great powers. As a consequence, the foreign offices of the powers are increasingly concerned with world politics. The agenda of the Security Council or General Assembly of the United Nations bears witness to the real "globalization" of international relations.

The tendency of a large part of the world to be attracted to either the Washington or Moscow poles of power is certain to continue for some time. In periods of crisis such as that of the recent Berlin blockade and the consequent airlift, the polarization will be more pronounced while in years of relative international calm the states of the world are likely to pursue a more independent policy. The only large political union that might become a third pole of power in a relatively short time would be a federation of Western Europe under the prob-

able leadership of Germany. The economic potential of this area could enable a great complex of power to operate between the United States and the Soviet Union. But the creation of a genuine Western Union in Europe is extremely unlikely. In the long run the United States and the Soviet Union might find such a creation more of a menace than a benefit. The feeble political efforts of the Europeans themselves to bring into being a strong Council of Europe at Strasbourg suggest that national sovereignty is as highly cherished in the present century as in the past.

DEVELOPMENT OF REGIONALISM

The development of regional organizations of sovereign states is a distinct trend of the present era. Although regional groupings may seem contradictory to the polarization of power, it is quite possible for a regional organization to revolve about a super-power. For instance, the United States is the key member in both the North Atlantic and Western Hemisphere defense systems. In the regional agreements, the members maintain their sovereignty, agreeing only on certain broad principles, usually relating to common defense. Even in this respect the actual decision to declare war resides in the state concerned, a condition that applies to both the strong and the weak countries. Nevertheless, the regional agreements usually create a moral obligation for collective action on the military plane in the event of aggression against any of the participants. Article 5 of the North Atlantic Treaty, the heart of the pact, expresses the situation in the following words:

The Parties agree that an armed attack against one or more of them in Europe or North America shall be considered an attack against them all; and consequently they agree that, if such an armed attack occurs, each of them, in exercise of the right of individual or collective self-defense recognized by Article 51 of the Charter of the United Nations, will assist the Party or Parties so attacked by taking forthwith, individually and in concert with the other Parties, such action as it deems necessary, including the use of armed force, to restore and maintain the security of the North Atlantic area.

The existence of regional agreements, often with common key interlocking membership,

further tends to "globalize" peace and war. A Sarajevo, Marco Polo Bridge or Danzig incident is likely to drag the whole world into the conflagration.

The extremely difficult position of small states in the contemporary world of power politics motivates many of them to work together in regional groupings under the aegis of a super-power on the principle of hanging together or hanging separately. Given the technological advances of the present century a small state like Austria, Denmark, or Czechoslovakia becomes a pawn in warfare. Moreover, the rise of the super-powers correspondingly impairs the position of the small nations. The solution for them appears to lie in membership in a large regional grouping. To illustrate, Belgium today cannot defend herself alone; even the eventual area of Benelux, consisting of Belgium, the Netherlands, and Luxembourg, is too small a unit for adequate defense; only the existence of Benelux as a part of the North Atlantic Treaty area presents a sound solution. The lessening of the military importance of the small states, however, does not diminish in any way their moral right to independence or the free expression of their nationhood. Civilization owes a great debt to the cultural contributions of such countries as Switzerland and the Netherlands.

Although security may be the motivating factor that precipitates a regional agreement, a common cultural consciousness and an identity of objectives may serve as the underlying foundation. For example, the members of the Arab League have been united by a common culture in addition to their opposition to Zionism. The governments of the Soviet bloc of nations in Eastern Europe share a common ideology and in most cases a Slavic culture. On the other hand, the Organization of American States consists of the United States with an Anglo-Saxon background and the Latin America states south of the Rio Grande with a Latin civilization. The community of interests in this case rests on the need for hemispheric solidarity in world politics. Likewise the participants of the Brussels Pact and the North Atlantic Treaty represent different cultural backgrounds though they are bound together by a broad cultural similarity and the fear of Soviet aggression.

The development of regionalism may be indicative of an alleged tendency over the years for smaller political units to combine into larger ones. The United States is the classic example cited to substantiate this concept although Canada and Australia can be mentioned with equal validity. Nevertheless, the Balkanization of Europe after the First World War and the emergence of many new states in Asia after the recent conflict offer contrary evidence. Furthermore, regional organizations as presently constituted do not involve the destruction of sovereignty and they can easily collapse in the face of adversity. The great weakening of the Arab League following the failure of the war against Israel is a factor of major import in the Middle East. The regional organization of Eastern Europe under the Soviet Union would probably crumble in the event of a collapse or weakening of Soviet power. The Council of Europe at Strasbourg, feeble as it already is, might easily disintegrate if any of its members attempted to assume too dominant a role. Even the British Commonwealth of Nations may have been weakened by the recent nebulous formula on membership whereby the Republic of India did not follow the pattern of Burma and Ireland in seceding from the Commonwealth.

The problems involved in forming future organizations in other areas of the world are extremely complex. Plans have been discussed in a number of foreign offices about the establishment of a Pacific Ocean or Southeast Asian regional agreement. The centrifugal forces in those areas at the present time, however, appear far more influential than the centripetal. The appearance of stable governments, united by common objectives, might pave the way for a regional agreement in the Western Pacific, but the immediate forecast is not at all hopeful.

WEAKENING OF THE UNITED NATIONS

The weakening of the United Nations as an effective agency of world peace has been one of the fundamental causes for the important postwar regional agreements that have already been made. Although these treaties piously refer to the exercise of the "right of individual or collective self-defence" as recognized by Article 51 of the Charter of the United Nations,

it is doubtful if the fathers of the United Nations Organization expected Article 51 to become the stepmother of long term regional pacts of defense. In their speeches at the signing of the North Atlantic Treaty, many of the foreign ministers of the twelve countries referred to the destruction of their high hopes in the United Nations. Mr. D. U. Stikker, Minister of Foreign Affairs of the Netherlands, expressed this sentiment when he said, "Regretfully we were driven to the conclusion that the Charter, though essential, is not enough, in the world as it is, to protect those vital principles for which we of the Western world who have gathered here stand."

At the very beginning, the United Nations was probably "over-sold," at least to the democratic peoples of the world. The presence of the veto power in the Charter, desired by all the "Big Five" who automatically became permanent members in the Security Council, prevents the United Nations from taking significant action against the major powers of the postwar world. And since a global war could occur only through the actions of a major power, it is obvious that the peace of the world could not be maintained within the legal framework of the United Nations, if one of the "Big Five" decided to defy it. The possibility of the veto has also influenced the major powers in peacetime to take important decisions in foreign policy outside the framework of the United Nations. The main hopes of the United Nations in the political field of activity rested upon a harmonious concert of the powers, a concert that now bears little resemblance to a symphony.

At the same time the United Nations should not be written off the world scene as a hopeless failure. The Organization has achieved considerable success in settling disputes among small states. The United Nations has not prevented war in Palestine, Indonesia or Kashmir, but it has facilitated the termination of the fighting and the establishment of peaceful procedures looking toward a permanent solution of the disputes. Furthermore, the United Nations provides a world forum, a town hall which does exert some pressure even on the great powers. Soviet policy in Iran has undoubtedly been modified by this factor. More-

over, the United Nations gives the small states of the world a chance to be heard. It was primarily these countries that defeated an Anglo-Italian plan for a solution of the controversy over the disposition of the Italian colonial empire in Africa. The voice of the small states is increasingly heard in support of the dependent peoples of the world.

The work of the United Nations in the non-political field is increasing in scope and value. Admittedly this work does not often make the headlines or capture public attention. Yet the Economic and Social Council with its numerous commissions including the one on human rights, the Trusteeship Council, and the specialized agencies such as the Food and Agriculture Organization, the International Labor Organization, the International Monetary Fund, the World Health Organization, the International Refugee Organization, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, the International Civil Aviation Organization, and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development render valuable service in their respective fields.

The multiplicity of international organizations and the complexity of their functions suggest that sovereign states are prepared to place more and more of their problems upon the common council table. This decision is motivated by necessity arising from the literal shrinkage of the world in an air age, the economic interdependence of modern civilization, and the technological aspects of defense in the present century. Nevertheless, the modern state is reluctant to sacrifice any important aspect of its sovereignty. The Soviet Union, for instance, is suffering from an acute attack of the sovereignty virus. The United States has not allowed its participation in the North Atlantic Treaty or the Organization of American States to impair its sovereign rights. New states like the Philippines, Pakistan, and Burma are deeply conscious of their sovereign status. As is obvious, the United Nations itself is a league of sovereign members, not in any sense a federal union.

The failure of the statesmen to create an organization considered capable of preserving world peace has led to an active movement for the establishment of world government. The

United World Federalists have played an important part in the movement and have already prepared a draft constitution for the globe. The idea of closer world unity, possibly beginning with the Atlantic Community of Nations, has gained the support of many leading thinkers in the non-Soviet world. But the tendency toward regional organizations of sovereign states is far stronger than the movement for federation on a regional or global scale. At the same time the advocates of world government, though criticized as missionaries, may possibly be the pioneers of a new order.

ARMAMENT RACE

Closely related to the present world crisis is the tendency toward rearmament on a global scale. This trend is reflected not only in the failure of the efforts of the United Nations Commission for Conventional Armaments and of the United Nations Atomic Energy Commission, but also in the mounting expenses for national defense in the budgets of the powers of the world. This armament race, especially in the atomic energy field, is one of the gravest trends of the present. The news that Russia now has the atomic bomb places the weapon in the hands of both super-powers. Considerable reduction in armaments, notably naval, was achieved after the First World War, but the present period offers no promise of substantial disarmament now or in the future.

In the case of the United States, the arms race has caused the nation to maintain the largest military establishment in its peacetime history. The competition in arms is costing the American people one-half of the tax dollar. The United States is now spending millions and millions in a program of military assistance to selected foreign countries. At the same time the Soviet Union, which only partially demobilized its wartime forces, is maintaining the largest standing army on earth. Moreover, the Kremlin is making terrific efforts to modernize and expand its air forces. Both the United States and the Soviet Union are concerned with the many problems related to the acquisition and use of bases necessary to defend their own territory and that of their allies. Even Great Britain, facing grave obstacles to economic recovery, is forced to devote great sums to national and imperial defense. The

protection of the Crown Colony of Hong Kong, outpost of empire off south China, is a case in point. In fact, most of the nations of the world that are not presently occupied by foreign troops or really restricted by peace treaties are engaged in the arms race.

The problem of disarmament has been given a sense of urgency by the appearance of the atomic bomb as a weapon of modern warfare. The atomic bomb may not be the absolute weapon; but it is the most absolute one so far used in the history of warfare. Probably the failure of the United Nations Atomic Energy Commission to solve the problem of the control of atomic energy on the international level is one of the most significant events since the end of the war. The proposal of the United States to the United Nations Atomic Energy Commission, based largely on the Acheson-Lilienthal Report, represented a genuine and sincere effort to solve the atomic arms problem. The refusal of the Soviet Union to meet the issue of atomic rearmament on other than narrow sovereign lines has struck one of the heaviest blows against world disarmament. Without a solution of the problem of the control of atomic energy on the international level, there is little possibility of an effective reduction of armament on land, sea or in the air.

No one can accurately foretell whether or not the present arms race will be checked. In view of the international situation unilateral disarmament by the United States would be catastrophic. The creation of mutual trust among the super-powers is necessary for an effective disarmament program. In the final analysis armament is only an expression of a diseased condition in the international body politic. The end, at least, of every unchecked arms race in history is no secret. Sir Edward Grey, the Foreign Minister of Great Britain at the outbreak of the First World War, frankly stated in his memoirs:

The enormous growth of armaments in Europe, the sense of insecurity and fear caused by them—it was these that made war inevitable. This, it seems to me, is the truest reading of history, and the lesson that the present should be learning from the past in the interest of future peace. . . .

EXPANSION OF NATIONALISM

A final tendency at the halfway mark of the

twentieth century is the expansion of nationalism and the liquidation of dependent areas in a large part of the world. The First World War precipitated an outburst of nationalism in Europe but the recent conflict hastened the process of nation building in Asia. The list of Asiatic states that have acquired independence or emerged from isolationism is impressive. Jordan and Israel have appeared from the former Palestine mandate of Britain; Syria and Lebanon have emerged from the old mandate territory of France; Yemen and Nepal have thrown off the shackles of seclusion; India, Pakistan, Burma, and Ceylon have gained their independence either inside or outside the British Commonwealth; the Mongolian People's Republic has voted against the titular rule of China; the Philippines have received their freedom from the United States; Korea, now split between two republics, is no longer ruled by Japan; the United States of Indonesia is replacing the Netherlands East Indies; and Viet Nam is assuming an important role in Southeast Asia.

These new members in the family of nations have raised many problems of international consequence. Among these issues should be mentioned the independence of Israel and the boundaries of the new state with its Arab neighbors, the partition of the Indian Empire between Pakistan and India with the territorial issues of Kashmir, Hyderabad, and the French and Portuguese possessions in the subcontinent, the emergence of Indonesian and Annamese nationalism in the Netherlands East Indies and French Indo-China, the readjustment of the former colonial powers to their daughters who have "come of age," the tragic partition of Korea along the thirty-eighth parallel between Soviet and Western zones of influence which has resulted in war, the efforts of the new countries to acquire membership in the United Nations, and the role of the new states in the cold war between the East and the West. Table B shows the present international affiliations of the new states of Asia.

Table B indicates that eight of the new states are members of the United Nations. Ceylon, Jordan, Mongolia, Nepal, and the two republics of Korea have applied for membership but have been rejected because of the

TABLE B
X = membership

Country	United Nations	Soviet Bloc	British Commonwealth	US MAP	Arab League
Burma	x				
Ceylon					
India	x x		x		x
Israel					
Jordan					
Korea	x x	x	x	x	x
North South					
Lebanon	x	x	x	x	x
Mongolia					
Nepal					
Pakistan	x x	x	x	x	x
Philippines	x x		x	x	x
Syria	x x		x	x	x
United States of Indonesia	x x		x	x	x
Viet Nam, Laos, Cambodia	x				
Yemen	x			x	

international rivalry of the powers. Both the United States of Indonesia and Viet Nam are expected to apply in the future. Four of the new states of Asia are members of the Arab League, three of the British Commonwealth, two of the Soviet bloc, three of the French Union, and two are receiving military assistance from the United States.

The retreat of the colonial powers in Asia has left a heritage of anti-imperialism on the part of many of the new states. Among these nations the Republic of India especially champions the cause of dependent peoples. Having a vast area of more than 1,200,000 square miles, a population of some 330,000,000 people, valuable natural resources, the possibility of much greater industrial development, a good transportation system, and a relatively stable government, India may eventually dominate the politics of the Indian Ocean. India has already taken the leadership in trying to develop a regional consciousness in southern Asia. This leadership, however, does not mean that India plans to turn her back upon the West. As a member of the British Commonwealth of Nations, the Republic of India is closely associated with the West. Prime Minister Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru has expressed India's atti-

tude toward world peace when he remarked in March, 1949, that his country remained "quite apart from the power blocs" but "in a far better position to cast her weight at the right moment in favor of peace." The future role of the new Republic of India in world politics will be very important.

The high tide of nationalism, which struck postwar Asia with such intensity, has not yet reached its crescendo in Africa. The only independent states of the Dark Continent at the present time are the Union of South Africa, Egypt, Liberia and Ethiopia. In late 1949, however, the United Nations General Assembly decided that Libya should be independent by January 1, 1952 and Italian Somaliland should receive freedom after a ten-year United Nations trusteeship under Italy as the administering power. Africa today is for the most part an overseas projection of Western Europe. Britain, France, Belgium, Portugal, and Spain now dominate the huge continent. Germany was displaced after the First World War and Italy officially lost her colonial empire after the recent conflict. Yet the emergence of a strong nationalist current in Africa is certain before the end of the present century. Already many leaders of the Arab areas of North Africa are eager to acquire their independence from the Europeans. Africa south of the Sahara will respond much more slowly to the call of nationalism, but the response in the end will be just as definite. The days of nineteenth century empire are definitely numbered in Africa.

The present political pattern throughout the world is the product of the basic trends of the times. As all of these trends influence each other in varying degrees at different periods, the resulting pattern is never static but always dynamic. In attempting to analyze the present era, the qualified student of international behavior can only "see through a glass darkly," but he may perchance discern the ensuing pattern.

A Plea for Geography in High Schools

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It was a class in the economic history of Europe and the problem was the geographic significance of the Danube River. Of the forty odd students in the room, all were aware that the Danube was near Germany, or in it, but exactly where this distant stream rose and how it flowed was a mystery. This is only one of many similar instances that could be given. Strangely enough, even the veterans in the classes, while having a vague knowledge of the geographical position of the places they visited during their tour of duty, are completely inaccurate when attempting to picture most of the world's surface.

It appears, after careful study, that there are two major reasons for this lack of vital information by our students. The first may be found on the elementary school level, where geography is handled by teachers who are not particularly trained for the work. This is not the fault of the teacher, but the fault of our administrators who work on the old adage; "Anyone can teach history and geography." Such an approach leaves us with teachers whose only formal knowledge of their field has come from their having been exposed to the problem when they were in elementary school.

The second reason may be found in the fact that our secondary schools have, for all practical purposes, forgotten geography completely. The mass weight of other subjects, many of them insignificant, has smothered geography. The erroneous belief that the student has learned the subject in elementary school, and therefore should not be forced to expose himself to it again will, I know, be fought by any teacher of history as a fallacy. Yet this seems to be the only solid reason given by our high school curriculum-makers for their unwillingness to include a course in geography in the curriculum.

Collegians' ignorance of the nations of the world is appalling enough, but a realization that they know even less about their own country makes the whole process of education ludicrous. It is a shocking reality that college jun-

tors have little or no knowledge of what states make up the deep South. That they cannot tell where the Mississippi River rises, or through what states it passes on its way to the Gulf of Mexico, makes one wonder whether, with all our new educational principles, methods and apparatus, we are doing the job well. Some will ask of what use is all this incidental information? Is it so necessary that a student know the states that make up the deep South? Probably, it is not so important that they know such specific material, but you cannot teach the history of a people without some knowledge of the geographical foundation upon which this history has been built. We would never consider teaching the constitutional history of the United States unless we were sure the students knew the Constitution. I state unequivocally that our students today through their ignorance of geography lack the necessary foundation upon which the study of history rests.

The greatness of the United States has depended in a great part on the physical properties of the land. We are a great nation basically and largely because our soil and land can produce those things so necessary in an industrial economy. The reason for our greatness is the people that have come to our shores during the past 175 years. The skills they brought with them were learned in countries spread over the face of the earth. A knowledge of these homelands or lands of origin have a bearing on our past and our future.

Is there a solution to this inept teaching of geography? I believe that with little or no difficulty our school systems could integrate into their secondary departments a course in geography. This course would not be one in physical geography alone, but should cover the economic factors as well. In order to make the course interesting, it could include field trips to museums, industrial exhibits and local producers, both on the farm and in the factory, for observation and study.

An example of what can be done is found in a high school in New York City where an ex-

perimental course in geography has been started as an extra-curricular activity. The group meets three times a week. During one class session map work is done, each student working with his own outline map. The purpose of this is to acclimate the student to the physical properties of each section of the United States, and later, of all countries of the world. At first, the student merely places, from a huge blackboard map, the mountains, rivers and other geographical features on his own personal map. Later he is expected to be able to do this from memory. On the second meeting day, there is a short discussion of the material assigned for reading during the previous class. In this discussion, led by the teacher, the student is encouraged to add new material discovered at home through reading. On the third day, field trips are planned or moving pictures, supplied by government agencies and industry, are used. The trips take the student to the state agricultural school, on a trip around Manhattan Island and the like. The moving pictures include films from the Departments of Agriculture, Interior and Commerce and from leading industrial groups. This program is varied throughout the

semester to take the sting of sameness from the classes.

It might well be asked what concrete results are achieved by this program. It has been shown that the students in this group have done progressively better, in their history and economic classes, and also that the reading and reports improve their English as well. They have found it easier to understand the farm problem and the legislation that has attempted to aid agriculture. They understand the miners' problem because they know something of the difficulties of mining. Examples could be multiplied a hundredfold to prove the advantages of such a course.

The high school student needs a course in geography. It is the most logical way to present history and the other allied subjects to minds that must know the reason before they become interested and eventually informed. This subject should be presented, if only as a one-semester course, some time during the four years of high school. If our students are to be well rounded intellectually, they must be well grounded in the subjects that are most important. Geography, now mired in pedagogical mud, is such a subject.

The Problem of Reading Readiness in the Social Studies

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Social studies teachers generally are agreed that pupil reading difficulties constitute the greatest obstacle toward more successful learning and, consequently, more successful teaching. Despite the increasing use of visual and auditory aids, it is on the written page that the student of history, civics and economics still depends for most of his information. With so much of the student's success dependent upon reading—interest, ability and comprehension—it is time to look more closely at the causes of "reading retardation" as the problem is commonly known in educational circles.

There are many and complex causes of

reading deficiencies, some of which are rooted in the physical or emotional make-up of the child and require medical treatment. After these cases have been screened, there still remain a large number who do poor work attributable to reading habits because they "just aren't interested" or "don't care to read." It is with this group, who are sometimes denounced as "lazy," "indifferent," or "dull" that the suggestions which follow are intended to apply.

It is my thesis that many of our reading "problems" spring directly from the teacher's failure to motivate the pupil's interest in his reading. He has no enthusiasm for his assigned

reading since he has not been given a goal or purpose when the assignment was made. This failure to establish "readiness," plus the frequent lack of understandable reading material, tend to create "reading problems." There is a mistaken belief that readiness can be ignored in the high school area, it being primarily an elementary school technique. One teacher has answered this in clear fashion: "Reading readiness is not limited to the beginning of the child's school life, but should be a part of every lesson at every level. Take time to introduce each lesson, each unit, and each subject fully, to develop necessary vocabulary and background."¹

The value of preparation for any undertaking can easily be confirmed from adult experiences. Building a home, making a trip, or buying a car are activities, which, similar to the units we teach, require planning, vocabulary mastery, and a comprehensive overview of the whole problem. How much more rewarding the history class finds its visit to the Gettysburg battlefield if it follows a few days of classroom map study noting place names and troop positions. Of course the field trip in itself is "readiness" for further reading. If the element of student readiness were the conscious aim of every teacher, there would be fewer problems in *learning to read* since more students would be *reading to learn*.

Readiness, in its broadest sense, requires that curiosity be stimulated and the student provided with at least the minimum vocabulary and the most essential materials necessary to begin his work. This period of preparation includes activities of orientation, exploration and motivation. These terms are not synonymous with readiness but are essentially part of the process. Here the teacher attempts to establish readiness by orienting the pupil to a new learning problem, by exploring his background, and by motivating his interest. To use the military vernacular, this is the period of "briefing." Psychologically, this is the time to diagnose and attempt to remove social or emotional blocks and to encourage receptiveness on the part of the student. In introducing a new unit

of study, this is the time for the class to consider what is variously termed the preview or overview, as well as to gain an appreciation of the desired objectives. This is the occasion for the teacher to evaluate the readiness of the group, as well as to diagnose the strengths and weaknesses of individual pupils. Methods of implementing these goals will be suggested, but first let us examine the nature of the general problems confronting the social studies teacher.

The difficulties which face the teacher of any subject in his attempt to establish readiness generally fall into two categories: those which spring from the pupil and those which are peculiar to the subject. Let us first consider the problems revolving about the pupil, the sometimes unreceptive target of our best directed efforts.

A universal problem when a new content area is being introduced is that of disinterest on the part of some portion of the class. There are many ways of overcoming this, but the remedy should not be prescribed until the reading ability and general intelligence of the pupil has been determined. Many pupils who display indifference toward the subject may lack the ability to read the material, to understand the vocabulary, and as a consequence, feel ill at ease when the subject is being discussed. To conceal their feeling of inadequacy they may resort to emotional behavior which compounds the problem. Obviously, the first step a teacher must take with a new unselected class is to discover the instructional level of the poor readers, group them if possible, and by all means provide them with reading material they can understand. Visual aids, field trips, and outside speakers will be especially stimulating to poor readers, but these activities should always be regarded as aids to the reading program and *not* as substitutes for material gained through a pupil's own reading efforts.

Since poor readers tend toward verbalism, using words they hear but don't understand, oral and written vocabulary drill is most essential at the beginning of each unit. It is most necessary that the teacher make use of clear-cut illustrations rather than to rely on broad concepts and theories. Even the most nebulous theory can be pinned down by an example taken

¹ Jane L. Hoffman, "From a Reading Teacher's Notebook," *Teachers' Service Bulletin in Reading* (October, 1949), published by the Macmillan Company, New York.

from the realm of the pupil's experience. Simple methods of research in which classroom reference books are used and an additional amount of class time for directed reading will prove helpful in working with retarded readers. Colorful quotations, dramatizations, project work and the liberal use of biographies will help the pupil whose reading difficulties dampen his interest.

There are two cautions that should be observed in the treatment of retarded readers in the classroom: if the teacher suspects or knows that a pupil is retarded he should not require him to read orally in class; furthermore, tact must be observed in distributing material of a lower reading level to slow readers, for many pupils with reading problems are understandably sensitive and are quick to resent being treated differently from the others in their social group.

Not all indifference to learning is due to a lack of reading ability or intelligence; at times the reading problem is solely one of creating interest. This may be a very difficult task, but undoubtedly it is a most challenging one. Here the resourcefulness, ingenuity and personality of the teacher must be exerted to the utmost. The experienced teacher has learned that often, despite his best efforts, some pupils still remain indifferent. Inasmuch as this problem, however universal, can best be met by the teacher as his experience dictates, only a few general suggestions are offered here.

If we accept the oft-expressed view that every pupil has a point of interest, the aim of the teacher should be to determine the pupil's strong suit and lead into it. Readiness to learn presupposes that all have a desire to know and it is the purpose of the teacher to encourage this innate quality wherever possible. The pupil's curiosity may be aroused by posing a problem, asking an intriguing question, or relating a human interest story which the pupil can associate with his own experience. Social studies lend themselves to these stimuli of interest, since they deal directly with other human beings and their problems.

The use of current events is of vital importance in arousing interest. Parallels between historic events and the present can often be made. Our present all-out support of the United

Nations is in marked contrast to our refusal to join the League of Nations. The many possible causes for this change in United States policy should sustain a most stimulating class discussion on what is without doubt the most momentous decision of our times. The creation of new states, such as Israel, India and Indonesia offer interesting comparisons with our own national origin.

The daily assignment should have as its core a problem, a challenge, or a stimulating question, not just an area of subject matter to be covered. In this manner, interest is more easily sustained and readiness for the next day's work is inspired.

The value of visual and auditory aids in stimulating interest is generally recognized, their use having experienced a remarkable increase since World War II. Even more effective, although more difficult to arrange, are field trips. Some preparation must necessarily precede a field trip—be it to an historical site or the City Hall—but such a trip usually raises questions which "ready" the class for additional learning. A trip to the remains of an old charcoal iron furnace would be an excellent stimulus to prepare a class for a unit on colonial industry. It would be excellent to cap such a unit with a visit to a modern steel plant. Likewise, a visit to a court trial would provoke keen readiness for more information on court procedure. With reference to the use of field trips to stimulate interest, it is perhaps unfortunate that high school students do not visit their nation's capital *before* their junior or senior year, rather than at the end of their high school experience.

Bringing into the classroom objects which pertain to the topic under study never fails to incite interest. Sometimes arrangements can be made with a local museum or public agency to borrow such objects for classroom purposes. A parchment manuscript invariably inspires questions regarding colonial tanning processes, writing materials, penmanship, literacy and a host of other queries. An old flintlock rifle can give a history class an insight into the affairs of Daniel Boone and provoke so many questions that the teacher may well have to do some research on antique firearms. The most vivid and far-reaching lessons can be taught by starting with a visual object; if at all possible, allow

the students to handle such objects. After such experiences the pupil will be ready to do some reading on his own. The teacher has merely started the learning process.

To sum up the problem of readiness as it pertains to the pupil: first, we must determine the reading ability and then adapt our materials and procedures to his needs; second, to create interest we must relate our teaching to the pupil's own experiences and make full use of auditory and visual aids, field trips and classroom displays of objects pertinent to the lesson.

Dr. Guy L. Bond of the University of Minnesota has prepared three questions which he feels the teacher should consider before presenting the class with a new unit:

1. Has interest been aroused?
2. Do the children have the necessary background of understanding to read the material being presented in the unit?
3. Have the purposes been accepted by the children and have the specific reading requirements been well explained to them?²

While these questions were designed for the middle grades, they are valid at all grade levels.

At the outset we noted that the problem of creating interest, upon which readiness is based, originates either with the pupil or the subject. We have considered the area of pupil ability and interest, and it now remains to see the difficulties presented by the nature of the field we call the social studies.

The first problem often confronting the teacher of social studies is to convince the pupil that there is real value to him in studying subjects which appear to have only cultural interest. In this utilitarian age it is often difficult for the pupils, especially for the commercial, agricultural, and general groups, to see any value in studying the social studies; often they show disdain for even such a practical approach to citizenship as civics. A student may be impressed by the logic that required courses must have value and like spinach he must swallow them even though it's not an enjoyable part of his school life. In a nation where compulsion is held to a minimum the usual reaction is for pupils to develop a hearty distaste for the

social studies diet unless it can be made appealing. If this situation is further complicated by a reading difficulty, which quite often is the root cause of an aversion to social studies, the problem can require all the patience and persistence that an enduring teacher can muster. Since the social studies teacher must teach *all* the students in the student body their required courses, he must be prepared for a wide variety of interests and must have a lure to attract even the most indifferent pupil. Once the teacher has convinced the pupil that social studies has its rewards—and every teacher in the field should share this conviction—the first battle has been won.

Another major difficulty in establishing readiness in social studies is experienced when trying to teach concepts. A lack of adequate concepts in the minds of teachers, the impossibility of making many concepts clear by first-hand experience, and the lack of precision in the use of social studies concepts by many writers, teachers, and lecturers, are given by one writer as the chief causes of confusion in the minds of many students.³ Vocabulary development, a chief factor in readiness, is difficult with so much disagreement as to the meaning of such terms as democracy, socialism, capitalism, statism, communism and fascism. The complexity of contemporary problems such as labor-management, socialized medicine, atomic energy control and world economic recovery are not easily translated in terms of the pupil's experience and vocabulary. The current trend toward more fully illustrated texts and the copious publication of supplementary reading materials, replete with charts, diagrams and graphs, are helping the teacher put life into vague concepts, which, solely as ideas, are beyond the pupil's comprehension.

The academic nature of the traditional social studies program often discourages pupil interest and participation. A certain amount of study discipline, memory work, research, outlining, notetaking and writing will always be part of a social studies procedure; but to appeal to the non-academic pupil's interest requires that the teacher consciously avoid unnecessary "busy work" or monotonous adherence to a rigid pattern of written assignments. The teacher must

² Guy L. Bond, "Readiness for Reading in the Middle Grades," *Reading Bulletin 1A* (Lyons and Cornahan, Wilkes-Barre, Pa.), a pamphlet.

³ M. Lucile Harrison, *Reading Readiness* (Houghton Mifflin Company, New York, 1939), p. 191.

be the judge of how best to differentiate his methods in handling college preparatory and general groups. Generally, the inducements to create interest should be far less necessary with those pupils planning a college career. In all phases of the readiness program, student participation in planning the unit, suggesting problems and activities, as well as gathering materials, should be encouraged. With the greater percentage of our high school graduates not planning to go to college, we must appeal to their interests in the light of their non-academic needs. This is not to mean a "watering down" of the course to the point where no minimum requirements are made, nor should the minimum standard be set so low that it encourages laxity. One of the most dangerous tendencies today is that of making the curriculum so flexible and elective, and so devoid of solid requirements, that passage through the academic mill is assured for almost all by a devious selection of their courses. If we fail to teach responsibility by permitting low level requirements, we are failing to provide the quality most necessary in our democracy.

The foregoing discussion of the broad approach to the problem of reading readiness suggests certain basic considerations:

1. More attention should be paid to the causes and prevention of reading retardation and, if possible, the high school teacher should be relieved from dealing with the extreme cases.
2. The reading level of each pupil should be determined as he enters the ninth grade, and such information should be made available to his teachers.
3. If possible, pupils should be grouped in a general way according to their reading ability and assimilable materials should be provided for each level.

4. Teaching methods, as well as the materials, should be well-adapted to help those who gain little from their reading.
5. Visual material should be provided, but only as a stimulus to reading, and not as an end in itself. An over-emphasis on visual aids can do as much harm to the development of good reading habits as the typewriter has done to the art of penmanship.
6. Surveys should be made of the school community to determine what opportunities exist for field trips and outside speakers.
7. There is a need for a statement of social studies objectives in terms the student can understand. If he were more cognizant of how history, sociology, civics and economics are directly related to his welfare, he would be less critical of their practical value.

Reading readiness is largely a matter of preparedness—physical, mental and psychological—for approaching a new problem. While teachers have always been aware of the necessity for preparing their own lessons, it appears that more attention should be paid to preparing the pupil, the seed-bed in which the growth of wholesome ideas will reflect the success or failure of our teaching. Throughout this preparation the personality and character of the teacher will largely determine the final results.

As Arthur Guiterman has put it:
No printed page nor spoken plea
May teach young hearts what men should be—
Not all the books on all the shelves,
But what the teachers are themselves.⁴

⁴ Quoted by Emmett A. Betts, "Social and Emotional Readiness for Reading," *Educational Administration and Supervision* (February, 1944), p. 86.

Education's Lack of World Perspective

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A startling revelation came as a result of a survey of required courses in the social studies, particularly history, on the secondary level in each of our forty-eight states. With the United States the foremost power in the world today, and with world emphasis on internationalism and world cooperation, it would seem logical to approach this field from worldly perspectives. It is a sad note to perceive, then, the evident inadequacy of leaders in comprehending the necessity of teaching world relations. Although educators and other thinking people have been quick to criticize the average European's lack of understanding of American thinking, we are hardly above criticism ourselves in the American history field alone, and more particularly in the realm of world history.

According to this study, only two states of the forty-eight require world history. They are Missouri and North Dakota. Although in other states it is generally offered, there is neither legislative nor educational authority to require that subject. Even more amazing is the finding that two states, Rhode Island and Vermont, have no coordinated history programs, and offer no records of their present school curricula, while Kentucky and Michigan simply have no requirements. Maryland also makes no requirements specific, but on the basis of tradition, offers United States and world history, and problems of American democracy. Nebraska requires that United States history and American government be taught, but does not specify that it be taken as a requirement for graduation. Otherwise, as the chart indicates, United States history is generally required for graduation. However, it should be understood that state minimum requirements are not indicative of the progressiveness of certain localities within states.

Our nationalism, in an international world, is stressed in nearly every state in the curricular requirement of United States and related American social studies, such as federal gov-

ernment, citizenship courses, and problems of American democracy. In fact, localism, the op-

A SURVEY OF REQUIRED COURSES IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

State	Requirements by Legislation or educational authority for graduation.	United States History	
		Only	And related Social Studies, And World or European History.
1. Alabama		X	X
2. Arizona*		X	X X
3. Arkansas		X	X X
4. California		X	X X
5. Colorado		X	X X
6. Connecticut		X	X X
7. Delaware		X	X X
8. Florida		X	X X
10. Idaho		X	X X
9. Georgia		X	X X
11. Illinois		X	X X
12. Indiana		X	X X
13. Iowa		X	X X
14. Kansas		X	X X
15. Kentucky		X	X X
16. Louisiana		X	X X
17. Maryland**		X	X X
18. Maine		X	X X
19. Massachusetts		X	X X
20. Michigan		X	X X
21. Minnesota		X	X X
22. Mississippi		X	X X
23. Missouri		X	X X
24. Montana		X	X X
25. Nebraska***		X	X X
26. Nevada		X	X X
27. New Hampshire		X	X X
28. New Jersey****		X	X X
29. New Mexico*****		X	X X
30. New York		X	X X
31. North Carolina		X	X X
32. North Dakota		X	X X
33. Ohio		X	X X
34. Oklahoma		X	X X
35. Oregon		X	X X
36. Pennsylvania		X	X X
37. Rhode Island		X	X X
38. South Carolina		X	X X
39. South Dakota		X	X X
40. Tennessee		X	X X
41. Texas		X	X X
42. Utah		X	X X
43. Vermont		X	X X
44. Virginia		X	X X
45. Washington		X	X X
46. West Virginia		X	X X
47. Wisconsin		X	X X
48. Wyoming		X	X X
Alaska			X

*State and Federal Constitutions required.

**Traditionally require United States and World History. Problems of Democracy. There is a trend toward the development of a unified program.

***United States History must be offered, but is not required for graduation.

****Two year course is required.

*****The two units required may include one of the following in addition to United States History: World History, World Geography, Economics, or similar subjects.

posite extreme of one-worldliness, is emphasized by several states where state constitutional study and state history must be studied.

Educators estimate the probable number of school students in 1960 will have risen from the present six million to about eight million. Of these, 20 per cent will go to college. Dependent on high school education alone, and this all too weak, roughly four million, therefore, are not ready to concern themselves fully with events of a changing world in which we will look to them to assume leadership. Further, it is questionable if the 20 per cent who go to college will take the opportunity to prepare themselves fully in the social science field for international mindedness.

As world leaders, we must educate Americans to worldly perspectives. A strong beginning on the secondary level must be undertaken in order that future citizens as well as leaders may be neither idealistic nor too pessimistic in the consideration of current world events. A realistic approach is dependent upon our investigating these issues by a broader, more thorough method. International affairs can be comprehended by treating the history of the United States as a segment of world history, which cannot be understood to any extent at present or at any time past, without consciously emphasizing our inter-relationship with other powers. For example, the gaining of our independence from Great Britain, too often presented from the narrow point of view of nationalism, is more correctly identified from the perspective of the European situation of that day and as a by-product of the second English-French Hundred Years' War (1689-1815).

Certain states are at present admittedly in a state of flux because of the very evident need of social studies curriculum revision. A concrete program to meet this problem is still

lacking. Yet, United States history *can* be taught on the secondary level from international viewpoints. A correlated history of the United States could be an answer. This program would embrace European, Asiatic, Canadian and Hispanic-American relations. Correlation could be accomplished through the group-unit method with the use of numerous text and reference books of divergent viewpoints: political, social, economic and geographical. Let these books be the works of historians of the English, Canadian or any other national group. Let the American student read the story of the American Revolution, for example, from a Canadian history text, as well as from all these other sources. Thus occurs a substitution for our stringent nationalism by a wider, more democratic comprehension of our relative position in the world. The present trend of deemphasizing militaristic and political approaches would be pursued. At the same time, such an extensive program would serve the nation well by giving the student a far better appreciation of our United States, which he will be helping to guide in its world leadership responsibility.

Trygve Lie, Secretary General of the United Nations, proposed in a speech on March 21 at the national B'nai B'rith annual convention dinner that certain United Nations machinery, which could aid world peace, had not been tried. His modest, undramatic suggestion of periodic meetings of foreign ministers of Security Council nations for the mere friendly discussion of controversial issues is a move surprisingly lacking in ambition, yet perhaps the small quiet beginning of great things. Could not education promote such a growth of world understanding in the same modest way? Surely it is a resource we should be developing to its fullest.

Thomas Jefferson: Man of Culture

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Thomas Jefferson is as much a vital influence today as he was to the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries in which he lived. To any thoughtful American investigating the sources of our way of life, this fact is at once apparent.

His principles helped serve as the foundation-stone of our state and national governments, principles which have survived the most stringent test of all—time. But because the emphasis is so frequently placed upon his political

contributions in establishing the republic, other aspects of his life are almost entirely forgotten. His tastes, surprisingly enough, inclined toward the cultural: he possessed a remarkable zest for music, literature and architecture.

It is said that Jefferson was happiest when he could leave the political world for Monticello, since it was there that he could satisfy his other varied interests. He found music particularly engaging and delightful. In a letter to a friend written during the time he was minister to France, he remarked that music was of invaluable pleasure to him and that he envied the French for their varied opportunities to enjoy this art, concluding on this point that "in spite of all the authority of the Decalogue I do covet." These were not mere words. Jefferson developed a decided taste for music very early in life. At fifteen, he was a proficient violinist, "drawing the bow with the zest of Paganini." An accident to his wrists and poor surgical treatment deprived him of personally performing in later years. He gained much pleasure, nonetheless, by listening to the music performed by his children and his guests.

Aside from his own talent, in 1783 Jefferson began to compile a catalogue of the music he owned and wished to acquire. From this list, his letters, and the music found at his home and in the Library of Congress, critics have found cause to marvel at the fine taste he developed during his lifetime.

Music, however, was not merely a personal thing with him. While abroad he had the opportunity to see and hear accomplished musicians. In his desire to extend the same opportunity to his own countrymen, he wrote to a friend upon his return home, inquiring about the possibility of sending a small band of musicians to this young country. Although his personal fortune was limited, he felt the investment was well worth the expense to instill some music appreciation in the inhabitants of the new nation. Concerning the comparative merits of French and American music appreciation, he complained that music in America was "in a state of deplorable barbarism."

In literature, too, Jefferson found an outlet for his cultural aspirations. He exhibited his preference early in life, reading widely with thoughtful selection and literal taste. He enjoyed English, French and Italian literature,

but seemed to have a particular fondness for the Greek and Latin classics. While urging the study of these two languages, he did not view this accomplishment as a mere utility: "to read the Latin and Greek authors in their original is a sublime luxury; and I deem luxury in science to be at least as justifiable as in architecture, painting, gardening or the other arts."

Jefferson extended his literary interest to poetry and criticism. While in France he wrote an excellent essay on English prosody; and some of his early critical observations showed true insight and appreciation for his subjects. He complained, in 1801, that his relish for contemporary poetry had deserted him: "that as one advances in life all these things gradually lose their fascination, and finally one appreciates only Homer and Virgil, and perhaps only Homer." He maintained a life-long interest in the classics, and allowed scarcely a day to pass without indulging in this highly cultural pleasure.

Although Jefferson was endowed with a powerful imagination, which, at times, he allowed to run rampant, he never fancied fiction and rarely read it at any period of his life.

Literature, Jefferson hoped, would some day be a cultural pursuit of America after the manner of England and France. Recognizing the fact that our country was necessarily distracted by too many occupations which concerned basic needs, he realized the impossibility of effecting any literary achievement in his time; understandingly he noted that "the first object of young societies is bread and covering," with "science . . . but secondary and subsequent." Therefore, literature was "not a distinct profession with us" in spite of the fact that "now and then a strong mind . . . emits a flash of light."

To music and literature, Jefferson could add many more cultural interests. He was a studious man, possessing a natural thirst for knowledge. His architectural aspirations bear out this fact. Once, in his youth, he allowed his imagination to run wild while he was laying plans for an ornamental burying place. He decided to choose some little-used spot in the park near a bubbling brook, with ancient oaks and evergreens standing by. In the center, he designed a small Gothic temple, one half of which was to be used by his family and the other half by strangers and

servants. Under the grave of his favorite servant, he planned to build pedestals with urns and proper inscriptions. Finally, his imagination created a grotto near a trickling stream, a "mossy couch, a figure of a sleeping nymph, and appropriate mottoes in English and Latin."

This dream provides a humorous contrast to Jefferson's later, down-to-earth views on architecture. He was familiar, actually, with all the systems of the art and probably knew more about them than any other American of his generation. It was while he was in France that his enthusiasm took life. In a letter from Nimes, he told of spending hours at a time gazing with rapture at the *Maison Quarée*. On his return home, he prepared a plan for the capitol at Richmond modeled after this lovely edifice. He also remodeled Monticello.

Jefferson's criticisms of the buildings in Virginia are most interesting—especially because of his frankness and the useful knowledge he exhibits on the subject. He complained because the buildings were rarely constructed of stone or brick. "It is impossible," he mourned

over the wooden structures, "to devise things of the art were obviously unknown and that there existed scarcely one model in Virginia sufficiently pure to give an idea of correct form.

Jefferson, himself, has been highly praised for his architectural achievements. His drawings, discovered in 1911, are a lasting proof of his artistic invention and fine draughtsmanship. The Marquis de Chastellux complimented Jefferson on his ability, declaring that he was "the first American who has consulted the fine arts to find out how to shelter himself from the weather."

It is difficult to conceive of a person who gave so great a part of his life to the public service accomplishing so much in cultural pursuits, as Jefferson has obviously done. Music, literature and architecture were actually only a few of his activities; his interests extended also to sculpture, painting, education, philosophy and agriculture as well. His life was indeed rich and full—one of fulfillment to himself and service to his country.

Short Answer Tests in American History

H. M. BOODISH

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Unit I—Test A. True or False

Directions: Write the word *true* or *false* on the dotted line before each statement.

Example: *false* Abraham Lincoln was the first President of the United States.

- 1. England opposed the development of manufacturing in the thirteen colonies.
- 2. In the "Boston Massacre" American troops killed four English soldiers.
- 3. The French outnumbered the English in the middle Atlantic colonies.
- 4. In general the colonial governors sided with England against the colonies.
- 5. The Royal Proclamation of 1763 encouraged the colonists to emigrate into the lands west of the Alleghenies.
- 6. The Molasses Act of 1733 encouraged colonial commerce with the British West Indies.
- 7. The Stamp Act was one of the immediate causes of the American Revolution.
- 8. The colonies revolted because England refused to repeal the Stamp Act.
- 9. George Grenville, prime minister of England, favored the idea that taxes in America should be levied only by the colonial assemblies.
- 10. Edmund Burke was an English statesman who was friendly to the colonies.
- 11. The "Boston Tea Party" was a reaction against the "Intolerable Acts."
- 12. English policy towards the colonies was influenced in large measure by the mercantile theory.

¹ This is the first of three sets of tests which will cover the field of American history. They are planned to supplement the pamphlet *Unit Outlines in American History* and, together with answer sheets, will be reprinted and available for classroom use.

(Continued on page 269)

TOPIC T8. English Colonies: The Middle Colonies

STUDY OUTLINE

1. New Netherland
 - a. Hudson's voyage, 1609; Manhattan Island occupied continuously after 1613
 - b. Dutch West India Company, 1621; patroon concessions
 - c. Early governors: Minuet, Kieft, Stuyvesant
 - d. Relations to New England; conquest of New Sweden
 - e. English seizure of New Netherland
2. New Sweden
 - a. Early proposals for Swedish colony
 - b. First expedition and settlement at Christina (now Wilmington, Del.); later settlements on both banks of the Delaware River
 - c. Conquest by Dutch
3. New York
 - a. Grant to Duke of York: lands; governmental powers
 - b. Conquest of Hudson and Delaware valleys; occupation of Long Island
 - c. Duke of York's Book of Laws; contest for representative government
 - d. Dominion of New England: Governor Andros
 - e. Royal colony, 1685
4. New Jersey
 - a. Early Dutch, Swedish, English settlements
 - b. Grant to Berkeley and Carteret, 1664; favorable terms for settlers; glowing descriptions of country
 - c. Division into East and West New Jersey; Quaker control; popular forms of government, especially in West Jersey
 - d. Surrender of governmental rights to Crown, 1702
5. Pennsylvania
 - a. Rise and character of Quakers; Penn's life
 - b. Penn's charter: land grant; governmental powers
 - c. Great migration and colony's rapid success; European settlers
 - d. Penn's provisions for governing colony
6. Delaware
 - a. Early Dutch, Swedish, English settlements; purchase by Penn from Duke of York
 - b. Government under Penn family: same governor as Pennsylvania; distinct legislature after 1704
7. Life in Middle Colonies
 - a. Industry: diversified agriculture; commerce in food stuffs; shipbuilding and naval stores; fur trade; manufactures
 - b. Classes of population: differences arising from land holdings; indentured servants—redemptioners; slaves; attitude of Quakers toward slavery, toward Indians
 - c. Religion: toleration in Middle Colonies; no religious establishments except in some towns in New York and New Jersey
 - d. Education: private and denominational schools; no common school system

AIDS TO LEARNING

AUDIO-VISUAL

Peter Stuyvesant (16 mm. silent film; 36 min.) (Chronicles of America Photoplay). Yale University Press
 Courageous Mr. Penn (16 mm. sound film; 84 min.). Allied Distributors Corp., 1560 Broadway, New York 16

Early Dutch Settlement in New York (filmstrip). Pictorial Events

Middle Atlantic States—Colonial Development (filmstrip). Society for Visual Education, Inc.

Colonies of Pennsylvania and New Jersey; New York Colony (filmstrips). Curriculum Service Bureau for International Studies, Inc., 433 W. 123 St., New York 27

Maryland, New York, Hudson Bay, The Ursulines (filmstrip) (Catholic pioneers and builders of America). Filmfax Productions, 10 E. 43 St., New York 18

HISTORIES

C. M. Andrews, *Colonial Self-Government*; L. G. Tyler, *England in America* (The American Nation, vols. 4, 5)

C. M. Andrews, *The Colonial Period* (Home University Library)

C. L. Becker, *Beginnings of the American People* (Riverside History of the United States, vol. 1)

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S. G. Fisher, *The Quaker Colonies*; M. W. Goodwin, *Dutch and English on the Hudson* (The Chronicles of America, vols. 7, 8)

M. W. Jernegan, *The American Colonies* (Epochs of American History)

H. I. Priestley, *The Coming of the White Man*; T. J. Wertenbaker, *The First Americans* (A History of American Life, vols. 1, 2)

C. Wissler, C. L. Skinner, W. Wood, *Adventurers in the Wilderness* (The Pageant of America, vol. 1)

H. S. Canby, *The Brandywine*; C. Carmer, *The Hudson*; C. Hislop, *The Mohawk*; F. Way, Jr., *The Allegheny*; H. E. Wildes, *The Delaware* (Rivers of America series)

J. T. Adams, *Album of American History*, I; G. Bancroft, *History of the United States*, I, II; Cambridge Modern History, VII; E. Channing, *History of the United States*, I, II; E. Eggleston, *The Beginners of a Nation* and *The Transit of Civilization from England to America in the Seventeenth Century*; J. Fiske, *Dutch and Quaker Colonies*, I, II; A. Hark, *Story of the Pennsylvania Dutch*; W. Irving, *Knickerbocker's History of New York*; E. Singmaster, *The Book of the Colonies*

Biographies; E. J. Gray, *Penn*. Consult *Dictionary of American Biography*

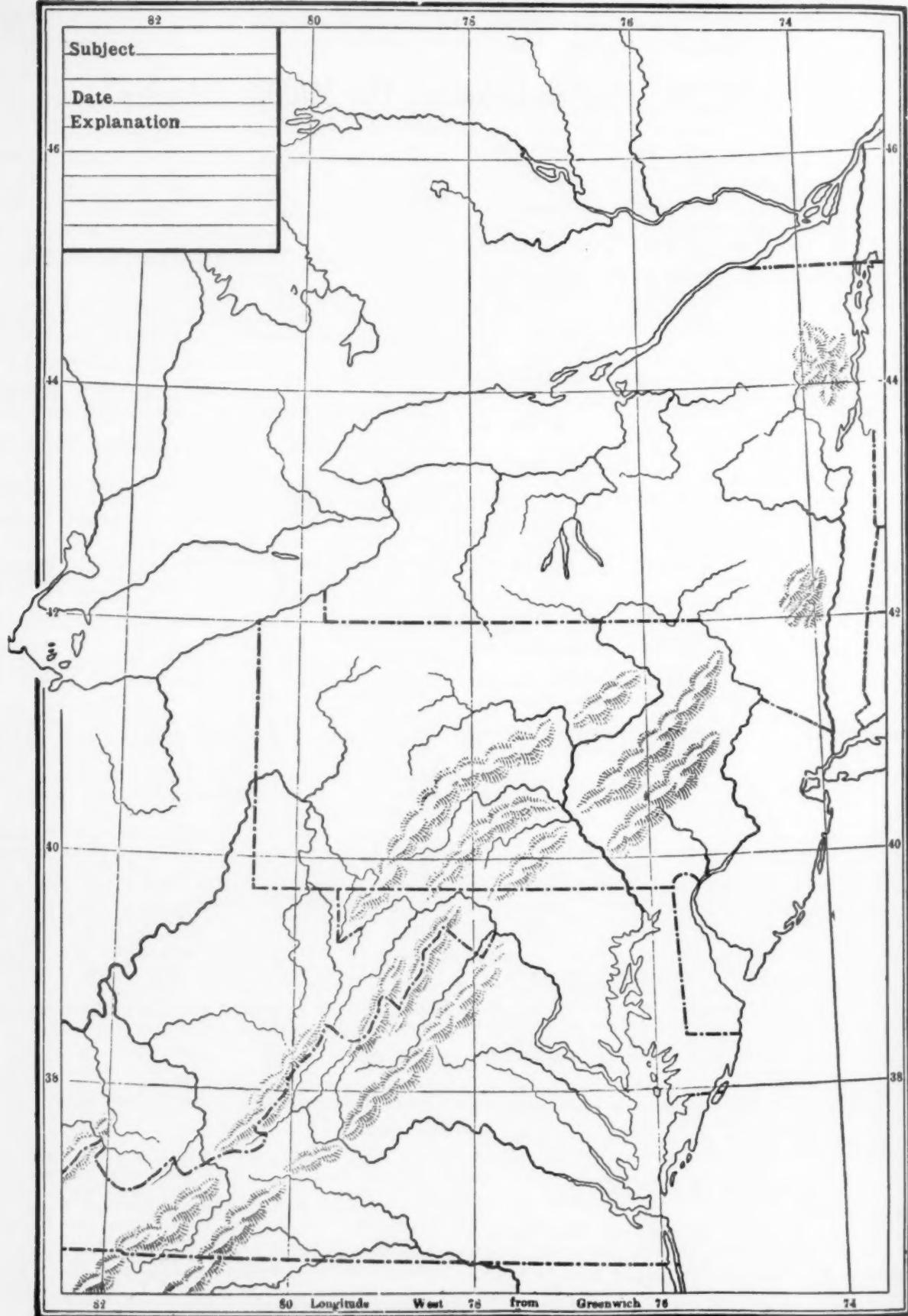
ATLASES

Harper's Atlas of American History; C. L. & E. H. Lord, *Historical Atlas of the United States*

STORIES

A. E. Barr, *A Maid of Old New York*; J. Bennett, *Barnaby Lee*; A. C. Best, *Harvest of the Hudson and Hudson Frontier*; I. M. Bolton, *Rebels in Bondage*; G. Crownfield, *Cristina of Old New York*; E. Gale, *Winged Boat*; R. S. Holland, *The Blue Heron's Feather*; E. Knipe, *A Maid of Old Manhattan*; D. L. Leetch, *Annetje and Her Family*; A. S. Malkus, *Pirates' Port*; A. Phillips, *Forever Possess*; G. Robinson, *Catch a Falling Star*; C. L. Skinner, *Debby Barnes, Trader*

¹This is the eighth of a series of History Topics for American History prepared by Morris Wolf, Girard College, Philadelphia, Pa.



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MAP STUDY FOR TOPIC T8. LAND GRANTS AND SETTLEMENTS IN MIDDLE COLONIES
Mark land grants and principal settlements. Show frontier line of 1715. Bound and label the several colonies.

BEGINNINGS IN THE MIDDLE COLONIES



This map was made by a Dutchman in 1656. What Dutch names still appear on our road maps? What two rivers are mistakenly joined on this map?



From Benjamin West's "Penn's Treaty with the Indians." Penn met the Indians at Shackamaxon (now in the Kensington section of Philadelphia) in 1682, a century before West painted. Swedish settlers had built the houses shown. Is West's painting historically reliable?

SOURCES

H. S. Commager, *Documents of American History*, nos. 14, 25, 26, 28, 29; H. S. Commager & A. Nevins, *The Heritage of America*, 8, 14; S. E. Forman, *Side-lights on Our Social and Economic History*, pp. 206-207; A. B. Hart, *American History Told by Contemporaries*, I, chs. 22-26; D. S. Muzzey, *Readings in American History*, 17-21; *Old South Leaflets*, 69, 95, 96, 150, 168, 171; Veterans of Foreign Wars of the United States, *America*, II ("Colonization")

NEW YORK AND NEW JERSEY

The following extracts are taken from the first printed description, in English, of New York and New Jersey. Daniel Denton, the author, a resident of Jamaica, Long Island, later went to England. There, in 1670, was published his "Brief Description of New York: Formerly called New Netherlands."

To give some satisfaction to people that shall be desirous to transport themselves thither... I shall answer, that the usual way, is for a Company of people to joyn together, either enough to make a Town, or a lesser number; these go with the consent of the Governor, and view a Tract of Land, there being choice enough, and finding a place convenient for a Town, they return to the Governor, who upon their desire admits them into the Colony, and gives them a Grant or Patent for the said Land, for themselves and Associates. These persons being thus qualified, settle the place, and take in what inhabitants to themselves they shall see cause to admit of, till their Town be full; these Associates thus taken in have equal privileges with themselves, and they make a division of the Land suitable to every man's occasions, . . . the rest they let lie in common till they have occasion for a new division, never dividing their Pasture-land at all, which lies in common to the whole Town. The best Commodities for any to carry with them is Clothing, the Country being full of all sorts of Cattel, which they may furnish themselves withal at an easie rate, for any sorts of English Goods, as likewise Instruments for Husbandry and Building, with Nails, Hinges, Glass, and the like; For the manner how they get a livelihood, it is principally by Corn [grain] and Cattle which will there fetch them any Commodities; likewise they sowe store of Flax, which they make every one Cloth of for their own wearing, as also woollen Cloth, and Linsey-woolsey, and had they more Tradesmen amongst them, they would in a little time live without the help of any other Country for their Clothing: For Tradesmen there is none but live happily there, as Carpenters, Blacksmiths, Masons, Tailors, Weavers, Shoemakers, Tanners, Brickmakers, and so any other Trade; them that have no Trade betake themselves to Husbandry, get Land of their own, and live exceedingly well.

Thus have I briefly given you a Relation of New-York, with the places thereunto adjoyning; in which, if I have err'd, it is principally in not giving it its due commendation; for besides those earthly blessings where it is stor'd, Heaven hath not been wanting to open his Treasure, in sending down seasonable showers upon the Earth, blessing it with a sweet and pleasant Air, and a Continuation of such Influences as tend to the Health both of Man and Beast: . . . the Climate hath such an affinity with that of England, that it breeds ordinarily no alteration to those which remove thither; . . . That I may say, and say truly, that if there be any terrestrial happiness to be had by people of all ranks, especially of an inferior rank, it must certainly be here: here any one may furnish himself with land, and live rent-free, yea, with such a quantity of Land, that he may weary himself with walking over his fields of Corn, and all sorts of Grain: and let his stock of Cattel amount to some hundreds, he needs not fear their want of pasture in the Summer or Fodder in the Winter, the Woods affording sufficient supply. For the Summer-season, where you have grass as high as a man's knees, nay, as high as

his waste, interlaced with Pea-vines and other weeds that Cattel much delight in, as much as a man can press through; and these woods also every mile or half-mile are furnished with fresh ponds, brooks or rivers, where all sorts of Cattel, during the heat of the day, do quench their thirst and cool themselves; these brooks and rivers being invironed of each side with several sorts of trees and Grape vines, the Vines, Arbor-like, interchanging places and crossing these rivers, does shade and shelter them from the scorching beams of Sols fiery influence; . . . Here those which Fortune hath frown'd upon in England . . . may procure . . . inheritances of lands and possessions, stock themselves with all sorts of Cattel, enjoy the benefit of them whilst they live, and leave them to the benefit of their children when they die: Here you need not trouble the Shambles for meat, nor Bakers and Brewers for Beer and Bread, nor run to a Linnen Draper for a supply, every one making their own Linnen, and a great part of their woollen cloth for their ordinary wearing: And how prodigal, if I may so say, hath Nature been to furnish the Countrey with all sorts of wilde Beasts and Fowle, which every one hath an interest in, and may hunt at his pleasure: where besides the pleasure in hunting he may furnish his house with excellent fat Venison . . . and the like; and wearied with that, he may go a Fishing, . . . Where you may travel by Land upon the same Continent hundreds of miles, and passe through Towns and Villages, and never hear the least complaint for want, nor hear any ask you for a farthing; there you may lodge in the fields and woods, travel from one end of the Countrey to another, with as much security as if you were lockt within your own Chamber; and if you chance to meet with an Indian-Town, they shall give you the best entertainment they have, and upon your desire, direct you on your way: But that which adds happiness to all the rest, is the Healthfulness of the place, where many people in twenty years time never know what sickness is; where they look upon it as a great mortality if two or three die out of a town in a years time; where besides the sweetness of the Air, the Countrey itself sends forth such a fragrant smell, that it may be perceived at Sea before they can make the Land; where no evil fog or vapour doth no sooner appear but a North-west or Westerly wind doth immediately dissolve it, and drive it away: What shall I say more? you shall scarce see a house, but the South side is begirt with Hives of Bees, which increase after an incredible manner: That I must needs say, that if there be any terrestrial Canaan, 'tis surely here, where the Land floweth with milk and honey. The inhabitants are blest with Peace and plenty, blessed in their Countrey, blessed in their Fields, blessed in the Fruit of their bodies, in the fruit of their grounds, in the increase of their Cattel, Horses and Sheep, blessed in their Basket, and in their Store; In a word, blessed in whatsoever they take in hand, or go about, the Earth yielding plentiful increase to all their painful labours.

. . . how free are those parts of the world from that pride and oppression, with their miserable effects, which many, nay almost all parts of the world are troubled, with being ignorant of that pomp and bravery which aspiring Humours are servants to, and striving after almost every where: where a Waggon or Cart gives as good content as a Coach; and a piece of their home-made Cloth, better than the finest Lawns or richest Silks: and though their low-roofed houses may seem to shut their doors against pride and luxury, yet how do they stand wide open to let charity in and out, either to assist each other, or relieve a stranger, and the distance of place from other Nations, doth secure them from the envious frowns of ill-affected Neighbours, and the troubles which usually arise thence. . . —Daniel Denton, *A Brief Description of New York* (reprint of 1845), pp. 17-22.

What contrasts did Denton make between life in New York and England around 1670? To whom would his description appeal most strongly? Were his contrasts a great exaggeration or really justified?

TOPIC T9. Spanish and French Settlements

STUDY OUTLINE

1. Spanish Settlements

- a. Spanish explorations and colonies established: West Indies, Mexico, Peru, Florida, south and western parts of United States
- b. Character of occupation; relations to Indians
- c. Form of government: arbitrary, by officers from mother country
- d. Colonial industry: mining; plantations; limitations on colonial trade
- e. Religion: missionary activity
- f. Extent of Spanish occupation and claims

2. French Settlements

- a. In general: followed river valleys into great interior plains; shut off from English by Alleghenies and from Spaniards by the trackless plains of southwest
- b. Early settlements in Acadia (1603-1605) and Canada (1608); Champlain's important work
- c. Controversy with English to 1634
- d. Spread through the St. Lawrence Valley, 1634-1669
- e. Entrance into Mississippi Valley, 1669
 - 1) Joliet and Marquette
 - 2) La Salle: his life and work
 - 3) Hennepin, 1680
 - 4) Settlements on the Gulf Coast, after 1685; New Orleans, 1717
- f. Relation to English in Hudson Bay region
- g. Chain of forts from Canada to Gulf of Mexico
- h. Life in French colonies
 - 1) Industry: fur trade, fisheries, agriculture
 - 2) Feudalism; monopolies; restraints imposed on trade with Europe
 - 3) Government: arbitrary; controlled by governor, intendant and council usually sent from France by King; no representative government, no local self-government, no meetings of colonists
 - 4) Religion: established by law; missionary activities

3. Comparison of Spanish and French Colonies with English

- a. Population: comparatively small; large place in society held by clergy; compare New England
- b. Emphasis placed upon military occupation; forts and trading posts; no participation of colonists in government or trade
- c. Many restrictions on trade and industry; importance of relation to Indians; Indians as agricultural workers and workers in mines; fur trade

AIDS TO LEARNING

AUDIO-VISUAL

Champlain (16 mm. silent film; 8 min.) Hoffberg Production, Inc., 620 Ninth Avenue, New York 18

Voyage and Discovery (24 plates). Informative Classroom Picture Publishers

Early Explorers and Pioneers (filmstrip). Eye Gate House, Inc., 330 W. 42nd Street, New York 18

French Colonies (filmstrip). Curriculum Service Bureau for International Studies, Inc.

From Florida to the Mississippi; Jacques Marquette; Jesuits on Northern Lakes and Rivers; Northern Explorers and Colonists; Story of La Salle (filmstrips) (Catholic pioneers and builders of America). Filmfax Productions

Cadillac's Village (filmstrip on Detroit and Great Lakes region before 1760). The Audio-Visual Materials Consultation Bureau, College of Education, Wayne University, Detroit, Mich.

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M. W. Jernegan, *The American Colonies* (Epochs of American History)

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C. Wissler, C. L. Skinner, W. Wood, *Adventurers in the Wilderness*; W. Wood & R. H. Gabriel, *The Winning of Freedom* (The Pageant of America, vols. 1, 6)

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Biographies: M. Constantin-Weyer, *The French Adventurer* (La Salle); P. A. Jones, *Coronado and Quivira*; M. McKinley, *Canadian Heroes of Pioneer Days* and *Canadian Heroines of Pioneer Days*; A. Replier, *Père Marquette, Priest, Pioneer and Adventurer*; F. W. Seymour, *La Salle*. Consult *Dictionary of American Biography*

ATLASSES

Harper's Atlas of American History; C. L. & E. H. Lord, *Historical Atlas of the United States*; C. O. Paulin, *Atlas of the Historical Geography of the United States*, Plates 38, 39A

STORIES

C. J. Cannon, *The Fight for the Pueblo and Lazaro in the Pueblos*; W. Cather, *Shadows on the Rock*; M. H. Catherwood, *Old Kaskaskia*; C. B. Driscoll, *Doublons*; F. O. Gaither, *The Painted Arrow* and *The Scarlet Coat*; B. Isley, *Blazing the Way West*; E. McNeil, *For the Glory of France* and *The Shores of Adventure*; B. Niles, *Day of Immense Sun*; G. L. Nute, *The Voyageur*; J. C. Parish, *The Man with the Iron Hand*; Sir G. Parker, *The Seats of the Mighty*; F. T. Patterson, *White Wampum*; O. Robbins, *Boy of Quebec*; L. B. Scott, *Dawn Boy of the Pueblos*; C. L. Skinner, *Beaver, Kings and Cabins*; H. Strang, *Early Days in Canada*; C. M. Sublette, *The Scarlet Cockerel*

SOURCES

H. S. Commager & A. Nevins, *The Heritage of America*, 4; A. B. Hart, *American History Told by Contemporaries*, II, ch. 17; Veterans of Foreign Wars of the United States, *America*, II ("Colonization")

¹ This is the ninth of a series of History Topics for American History prepared by Morris Wolf, Girard College, Philadelphia, Pa.



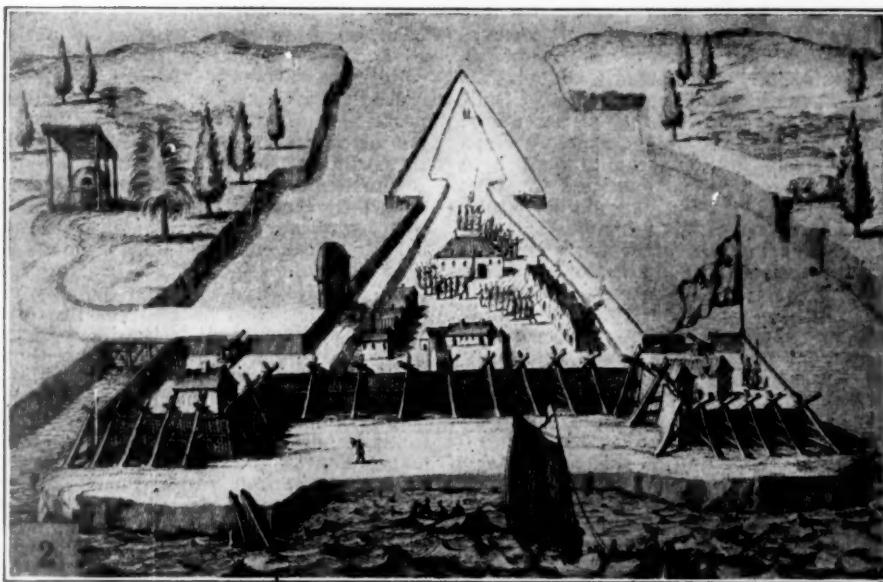
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MAP STUDY FOR TOPIC T9. FRENCH EXPLORATION AND SETTLEMENT IN MISSISSIPPI VALLEY
Show on the map the routes of Marquette and Joliet, Hennepin, and La Salle; locate the principal French posts; label the Great Lakes, Gulf of Mexico and the principal rivers.

FRENCH VENTURES IN AMERICA



In 1705 a Dutch engraver pictured the Spanish massacre (1565) of Ribault's French colonists in Florida. How reliable is such a picture?



Fort Charles, erected in the Carolinas about the middle of the 16th century, illustrates fortifications of that day. Note the unusual shape of the fort. What was the character of the stockade? Had the overhanging story, nowadays associated with block houses, come into use? Why was wood used so extensively?

LA SALLE'S EXPLORATION OF THE MISSISSIPPI, 1682.

These extracts are from the account by Father Zenobius Membré, a Recollect monk who accompanied La Salle.

On the 21st of December, I embarked with the sieur de Tonty and a party of our people on Lake Dauphin (Michigan), to go toward the divine river, called by the Indians Checagou, . . . The sieur de la Salle joined us there with the rest of his troop on the 4th of January, 1682, and found that Tonty had had sleighs made to put all on and carry it over the Chicago which was frozen; for though the winter in these parts is only two months long, it is notwithstanding very severe.

We had to make a portage to enter the Illinois river, which we found also frozen; we made it on the 27th of the same month, and dragging our canoes, baggage, and provisions, about eighty leagues on the river Seignelay (Illinois), which runs into the river Colbert (Mississippi), we traversed the great Illinois town without finding any one there, the Indians having gone to winter thirty leagues lower down on Lake Pimiteau (Peoria), where Fort Crevecoeur stands. We found it in a good state, and La Salle left his orders there. As from this spot navigation is open at all seasons, and free from ice, we embarked in our canoes, and on the 6th of February, reached the mouth of the river Seignelay, at 38° north. The floating ice on the river Colbert, at this place, kept us till the 13th of the same month, when we set out, and six leagues lower down, found the Ozage (Missouri) river, coming from the west. It is full as large as the river Colbert into which it empties troubling it so, that from the mouth of the Ozage the water is hardly drinkable. The Indians assure us that this river is formed by many others, and that they ascend it for ten or twelve days to a mountain where it rises; that beyond this mountain is the sea where they see great ships; that on the river are a great number of large villages, of many different nations; that there are arable and prairie-lands, and abundance of cattle and beaver. Although this river is very large, the Colbert does not seem augmented by it; but it pours in so much mud, that from its mouth the water of the great river, whose bed is also slimy, is more like clear mud than river water, without changing at all till it reaches the sea, a distance of more than three hundred leagues, although it receives seven large rivers, the water of which is very beautiful, and which are almost as large as the Mississippi. . . .

On the 14th of the same month, the sieur de la Salle took possession of this country with great ceremony. He planted a cross, and set up the king's arms, at which the Indians showed a great joy. You can talk much to Indians by signs, and those with us managed to make themselves a little understood in their language. I took occasion to explain something of the truth of God, and the mysteries of our redemption, of which they saw the arms. During this time they showed they relished what I said, by raising their eyes to heaven, and kneeling as if to adore. We also saw them rub their hands over their bodies after rubbing them over the cross. In fact, on our return from the sea, we found that they had surrounded the cross with a palisade. . . .

The whole country is covered with palm-trees, laurels of two kinds, plums, peaches, mulberry, apple, and pear trees of every kind. There are also five or six kinds of nut-trees, some of which bear nuts of extraordinary size. They also gave us several kinds of dried fruit to taste; we found them large and good. They have also many other kinds of fruit-trees which I never saw in Europe; but the season was too early to allow us to see the fruit. We observed vines already out of blossom. The mind and character of this people appeared on the whole docile and manageable, and even capable of reason. I made them understand all I wished about our mysteries [religion]. They conceived pretty well the necessity of a God, the creator and director of all, but attribute this divinity to the sun. Religion may be greatly advanced among them, as well as among the

Akansas, both these nations being half civilized. . . .

At last, after a navigation of about forty leagues, we arrived, on the sixth of April, at a point where the river divides into three channels. The sieur de la Salle divided his party the next day into three bands, to go and explore them. He took the western, the sieur Dautray the southern, the sieur Tonty, whom I accompanied, the middle one. These three channels are beautiful and deep. The water is brackish; after advancing two leagues it became perfectly salt, and advancing on, we discovered the open sea, so that on the ninth of April, with all possible solemnity, we performed the ceremony of planting the cross and raising the arms of France. After we had chanted the hymn of the church, "Vexilla Regis," and the "Te Deum," the sieur de la Salle, in the name of his majesty, took possession of that river, of all rivers that enter it, and of all the country watered by them. An authentic act was drawn up, signed by all of us there, and amid a volley from all our muskets, a leaden plate inscribed with the arms of France, and the names of those who had just made the discovery, was deposited in the earth. The sieur de la Salle, who always carried an astrolabe, took the latitude of the mouth. Although he kept to himself the exact point, we have learned that the river falls into the gulf of Mexico, between 27° and 28° north, . . . From the Illinois' river, we always went south or southwest; the river winds a little, preserves to the sea its breadth of about a quarter of a league, is everywhere very deep, without banks, or any obstacle to navigation, although the contrary has been published. This river is reckoned eight hundred leagues long; we travelled at least three hundred and fifty from the mouth of the river Seignelay. . . .

When you are twenty or thirty leagues below the Maroa [Indians], the banks are full of canes until you reach the sea, except in fifteen or twenty places where there are very pretty hills, and spacious, convenient, landing-places. The inundation does not extend far, and behind these drowned lands you see the finest country in the world. Our hunters, French and Indian, were delighted with it. For an extent of at least two hundred leagues in length, and as much in breadth, as we were told, there are vast fields of excellent land, diversified here and there with pleasing hills, lofty woods, groves through which you might ride on horseback, so clear and unobstructed are the paths. These little forests also line the rivers which intersect the country in various places, and which abound in fish. The crocodiles are dangerous here, so much so that in some parts no one would venture to expose himself, or even put his hand out of his canoe. The Indians told us that these animals often dragged in their people . . .

You meet prairies everywhere, sometimes of fifteen or twenty leagues front, and three or four deep, ready to receive the plough. The soil excellent, capable of supporting great colonies. Beans grow wild, and the stalk lasts several years, always bearing fruit; it is thicker than an arm, and runs up like ivy to the top of the highest trees. The peach-trees are quite like those of France, and very good; they are so loaded with fruit, that the Indians have to prop up those they cultivate in their clearings. There are whole forests of very fine mulberries, of which we ate the fruit from the month of May; many plum-trees and other fruit trees, some known and others unknown in Europe; vines, pomegranates, and horse-chestnuts, are common. They raise three or four crops of corn a year.

To conclude, our expedition of discovery was accomplished without having lost any of our men, French or Indian, and without anybody's being wounded, for which we were indebted to the protection of the Almighty, and the great capacity of Monsieur de la Salle. . . .—French, *Historical Collections of Louisiana*, IV, 165-184.

1. What area did La Salle claim? 2. How accurate was the Indian account of the Missouri Valley and the region west of it? 3. What features of the Mississippi Valley evidently appealed strongly to the Frenchmen?

(Continued from page 260)

-13. The Second Continental Congress was the legislative body charged with prosecuting the Revolutionary War.
-14. The Articles of Confederation created a strong government necessary to prosecute the war.
-15. American victory was made easier by England's occupation with troubles in Europe.
-16. John Paul Jones was an outstanding naval hero during the Revolutionary War.
-17. The Loyalists opposed an English victory.
-18. Baron Von Steuben fought on the side of the Americans.
-19. The American Revolution introduced liberal changes in the governments of some of the colonies.
-20. The treaty ending the Revolutionary War put an end to all the grievances the colonies had against England.

Unit I — Test B. Matching Test

Directions: Indicate which man or event in the right hand column is associated with the statement in the left hand column, by writing the correct letter on the dotted line before each statement.

Example:

c 1. First President of the United States	a. John Smith
b 2. Tea was dumped into the ocean by white men dressed as Indians	b. Boston Tea Party
a 3. A leader in the first years of the colony of Virginia	c. George Washington
.... 1. English statesman who favored colonial assemblies levying their own taxes	d. Patrick Henry
.... 2. He said: "Give me liberty or give me death." a. Benjamin Franklin
.... 3. A principal colonial figure in the "Boston Massacre"	b. William Pitt
.... 4. Organized committees of correspondence	c. George Townshend
.... 5. Financier of the Revolutionary War	d. Samuel Adams
.... 6. Wrote Revolutionary pamphlets	e. Robert Morris
.... 7. Minister to France in 1776	f. Thomas Paine
.... 8. Leader of the "Green Mountain Boys"	g. Patrick Henry
.... 9. Aide to George Washington a. Edmund Burke
.... 10. English statesman, friend of the colonies	b. George Grenville
.... 11. A tax on colonial legal papers, pamphlets and newspapers	c. Benjamin Franklin
.... 12. An act forbidding Western expansion by colonists	d. Marquis de Lafayette
.... 13. Organizations of individuals who wrote to each other in order to keep alive the Revolutionary spirit	e. Ethan Allen
.... 14. British soldiers firing upon and killing four Americans	f. Thomas Paine
.... 15. A meeting of colonial representatives in Carpenter's Hall in Philadelphia, 1774	g. Thomas Jefferson
 a. The Intolerable Acts
	b. Committees of Correspondence
	c. The Boston Tea Party
	d. The First Continental Congress
	e. The Second Continental Congress
	f. The Stamp Act
	g. The "Boston Massacre"
	h. The Royal Proclamation of 1763
	i. The Battle of Bunker Hill

....16. A pamphlet written to incite and justify rebellion against England
17. Armed bands of colonial soldiers organized to fight the British
18. An official statement proclaiming to the world the reasons for separation from England
19. Warrants to search private residences
20. Our first National Constitution

a. Minute men
 b. Red Coats
 c. Writs of assistance
 d. Declaration of Independence
 e. *Common Sense*
 f. Articles of Confederation
 g. The Constitution of the United States

....21. The Naval vessel of John Paul Jones
22. Treaty marking the end of the War for Independence
23. The turning point of the Revolutionary War
24. The place where American soldiers suffered a hard winter
25. The country which came to the aid of the American Colonies

a. *Serapis*
 b. *Bon Homme Richard*
 c. Battle of Saratoga
 d. Battle of Germantown
 e. Treaty of Paris
 f. Treaty of Ghent
 g. France
 h. Ireland
 i. Trenton
 j. Valley Forge

Unit II — Test A. True or false

(Follow same directions as in Unit I — Test A)

.....1. The Mason and Dixon Line settled a boundary dispute between Pennsylvania and New Jersey.
2. George Fox was a religious leader who founded the Quakers.
3. The three groups that settled in greatest numbers in Pennsylvania were the Quakers, the Germans, and the Scotch Irish.
4. The Pennsylvania Dutch came from Holland.
5. The Quakers were the first people to settle in what is now Pennsylvania.
6. Philadelphia was frequently referred to as the "Athens of America."
7. Valley Forge represents the spirit of sacrifice for an ideal.
8. The First Continental Congress met in Boston.
9. Pittsburgh served as the gateway to the west.
10. Pennsylvania's law-making body meets every three years.
11. A Pennsylvania state senator is elected for a period of four years.
12. The Pennsylvania constitution of 1776 was less liberal than the constitution of 1790.
13. The University of Pennsylvania was founded by Benjamin Franklin.
14. The number of electoral votes to which Pennsylvania is entitled depends on its number of senators and representatives to Congress.
15. Pennsylvania has 68 counties.
16. The "Whiskey Rebellion" occurred in western Pennsylvania.
17. Fort Pitt was originally Fort Duquesne.
18. Pennsylvania was the first state to ratify the federal Constitution.
19. The area of Pennsylvania is approximately 45,000 square miles.
20. The present constitution of Pennsylvania was adopted in 1873.

Unit II — Test B. Matching Test

(Follow same directions as in Unit I — Test B)

....1. The first capital of the United States	a. Bethlehem
....2. The capital of Pennsylvania	b. Philadelphia
....3. The steel center of the world	c. Johnstown

.... 4. A city famous for the manufacturing of textiles
.... 5. The scene of Pennsylvania's worst flood
.... 6. The legislative body of Pennsylvania
.... 7. A religious sect that settled in Pennsylvania
.... 8. The river which marks the boundary line of eastern Pennsylvania
.... 9. A protest against taxes by Pennsylvania farmers
.... 10. A famous Philadelphia shipyard in operation during the Civil War and World Wars I and II
.... 11. A Philadelphia Philanthropist of French origin
.... 12. A writer of popular songs
.... 13. The only Pennsylvanian elected President of the United States
.... 14. "Father of American Medicine"
.... 15. Noted for his work in conservation of natural resources
.... 16. A leader in the steel industry
.... 17. The first Postmaster General of the United States
.... 18. A famous woman who lived during the Civil War
.... 19. Founder of the University of Pennsylvania
.... 20. Discoverer of oxygen

d

a. Valley Forge
e. Pittsburgh
f. Harrisburg
a. Cramp
b. Delaware
c. Allegheny
d. Whiskey Rebellion
e. Shay's rebellion
f. Puritans
g. Quakers
h. General Assembly
i. Congress
a. James Logan
b. James Buchanan
c. Stephen Foster
d. Stephen Girard
e. Gifford Pinchot
f. Benjamin Rush
g. John Dickinson
a. George Westinghouse
b. Charles Schwab
c. Robert Morris
d. John Priestley
e. Benjamin Franklin
f. Barbara Frietchie
g. Betsy Ross
h. William Bradford

90.

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Unit III — Test A. True and False
(Follow same directions as in Unit I — Test A.)

..... 1. At the end of the Revolutionary War the American colonies were firmly united into a strong union.
..... 2. Under the Articles of Confederation each state was allowed one vote.
..... 3. Under the Articles of Confederation each state lost its power to levy tariffs on goods coming in from other states.
..... 4. The principal weakness of the government under the Articles of Confederation was that it could not enforce its decisions.
..... 5. The government under the Articles of Confederation could levy taxes on each of the states.
..... 6. There was no executive branch under the Articles of Confederation.
..... 7. The Negroes were given full representation in the Federal Constitution.
..... 8. The mercantile or business interests favored a strong federal government.
..... 9. The agrarian or agricultural interests were opposed to a strong federal government.

- 10. The original Constitution gave the right to vote to all males 21 years of age or over.
- 11. State representation in the Senate favored the larger states.
- 12. The problem of trade between the states was one of the reasons for the calling of the Constitutional Convention.
- 13. The framers of the Constitution were in favor of giving the people a great deal of control over the government.
- 14. After the Constitution was adopted in the convention it met with immediate approval in every state.
- 15. The drawing up of a constitution for a proposed United States of Europe presents the same problems as those that existed for the thirteen original states.
- 16. The first ten amendments to the constitution are known as the Bill of Rights.
- 17. The President's power to veto laws is a legislative power.
- 18. Treaties are made by the President subject to approval by the whole Congress.
- 19. The Vice-President may be a foreign born citizen.
- 20. Amendments to the constitution require the approval of two-thirds of Congress and one-half of the states.
- 21. The President is not elected directly by the people.
- 22. The original thirteen states favored a strong central government following the end of the War for Independence.
- 23. Alexander Hamilton favored the continuation of the government under the Articles of Confederation.
- 24. The European powers did not favor a strong United States government.
- 25. The Constitution makes no provisions for political parties.

Unit III — Test B. Matching Test

(Follow same procedure as in Unit I — Test B)

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1. An early attempt at colonial union 2. Provided plan for admitting western states into union 3. A series of essays favoring the Constitution 4. Wanted the United States to remain weak 5. A body of men who met to strengthen the government of the United States 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. "The Federalist" b. European powers c. Constitutional Convention d. The Albany Plan e. Northwest Ordinance (1887) f. The Continental Congress
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 6. President of the Constitutional Convention 7. His rebellion pointed to the weakness of the government under the Articles of Confederation 8. Favored a strong federal government 9. One of the authors of a series of essays favoring adoption of the Constitution 10. Explored the Northwest 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Alexander Hamilton b. James Madison c. George Washington d. George Rogers Clark e. Daniel Shay f. Thomas Jefferson
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 11. Proposed plan for a new government which provided for our present three branches of government 12. Proposed plan of government favored by the smaller states 13. The first ten amendments 14. Provision for changing the Constitution 15. Elects the President of the United States 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Bill of Rights b. New Jersey plan c. Virginia plan d. Electoral college e. Amendment f. Popular vote

-16. Interpreter of the United States Constitution
-17. Law making body of the Federal Government
-18. The executive head of the United States Government
-19. Approves presidential appointees
-20. Initiates tax laws
-a. President
-b. Congress
-c. House of Representatives
-d. Supreme Court
-e. Cabinet
-f. Senate

-21. Must be a natural born citizen
-22. Elected for a term of 6 years
-23. Elected for a term of 2 years
-24. Appointed for life
-25. First in line to succeed the President if he dies
-a. Cabinet offices
-b. Supreme Court Justice
-c. President
-d. Senator
-e. Representative
-f. Secretary of State
-g. Vice-President

The Teachers' Page

H. M. BOODISH

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The basic problem in teaching today, expressed in the simplest terms, is two-fold: What shall we teach and how shall we teach it? In the field of the social studies, the problem is especially acute in view of the fact that the areas of human knowledge, embraced in the social studies, are expanding at a very rapid pace. In the last issue we cited, as an example, the need for including in the social studies such subject areas as preparation for marriage and family relations, mental health, and personality and the emotions.

In addition to these larger areas of human knowledge there is a continuous flow of current issues and developments that cry for curricular recognition. Among these, during any one term, are such matters as the I.T.O., UNESCO, the Census, spy investigations, local and national elections and important legislation before Congress, such as the Brannan Plan, subsidized medicine, and executive reorganization of the federal government. Some of these matters, it is true, are parts of the regular curriculum, covered sometimes during the three years before the student graduates. If the student drops out before he finishes the twelve grades, and these issues have not yet been taken up as part of his usual studies, he may of course, never know much about them.

Frequently, however, even those issues which generally constitute an integral phase of the course in social studies assume a sudden prominence, at a time when they are not on the "teaching schedule." Either they have already been studied (minus the current emphasis) or they have not yet been reached in the course outline. In either situation, what should the social studies teacher do? Should he put aside, temporarily, the regular course outline and take up the immediate, pressing issue? If he does it for one, shall he do it for others as well? What will happen to the regular course, embodying the so-called fundamentals, which in itself is continuously expanding? Shall each teacher decide for himself as to whether any issue or issues at the moment are more important than the regular course? Is there, perhaps, a need to re-examine the whole subject of time allotment to and within the social studies, in relation to current events?

Walter E. Myer, of Civic Education Service, has on several occasions expressed the need for a five-period current events course in the social studies. As desirable as this would be, its provision in many schools is beset with a variety of obstacles, of which the principal one is, again, time allotment. If the five-period current events course would be introduced in lieu of

some other course in social studies, or even in addition to the regular course, it would be given probably during a single term out of the six terms of the senior high school. The problem of reaching all students on important current issues as they occur, would still remain unsolved.

Is there another approach? Is it possible that schools are too rigidly fixed to traditional patterns of rostering? Is there a written or unwritten law that compels the rostering of so called "majors" five periods a week? There are, of course, college entrance requirements and Carnegie units. Perhaps these also might be re-examined in terms of practical needs? Not all students learn at the same rate of speed. What one boy can learn in five periods a week, another may learn in two, three or four periods a week. Furthermore, the percentage of students processed for college entrance is not very large. Would not a bit of streamlining of any major course, eliminating unessential details here, or assigning extra readings elsewhere, make it just as possible to cover the course essentials in four as well as in five periods a week?

Whatever our own thinking about progressive education, education is part of living. Just because a student is rostered during any one term to "majors" and "minors" none of which include social studies, does that mean that he should cease being concerned with what is going on in the political, social and economic world? The adult citizen who is concerned with the current issues and problems of his day, no matter how busy he may be with his private affairs, will take time out to read and listen, so as to familiarize himself with what is happening beyond his own private world. Should we not carry this type of activity into our schools? Should not the school provide some time, at least one or two periods a week, during which all students, no matter what their majors and minors may be, would be given the opportunity to become familiar with what is going on in the world at all times?

This problem of time allotment to special current issues is one of immediate concern, for example, in the city of Philadelphia. For the past several months, a specially-created City Charter Commission has been working on the

draft of a new city charter. For the first time in the history of that city, the people will be given an opportunity to vote on a new form of city government. Whatever the merits of home rule and the forthcoming new charter (there are many issues and problems that are controversial and not easy to solve), the event is of great significance to the people of Philadelphia. What, in light of this, should be the role of the Philadelphia schools?

On this particular issue the Curriculum Office of the Philadelphia Public Schools has initiated a program that is very interesting and far-reaching in its effects. The philosophy of the Curriculum Office is not that teachers should propagandize for or against the adoption of the new charter. Instead, its point of view is that this aspect of current events—home rule, the drafting of the new city document, and its eventual submission to the voters for adoption or rejection—is of immediate significance to all people, adults as well as students. In addition, because of the publicity to be given to this subject, the city charter can be used as a springboard for initiating and vitalizing a continuous study of city government. The following excerpts taken from the "Statement of Policy and Plans," issued by the Curriculum Office, emphasize the points made above:

While youth enrolled in Philadelphia Public Schools will not vote in this election, they, too, are citizens whose welfare throughout their lives will be vitally affected. An improved City Charter should bring to them increased opportunities and responsibilities for helping to achieve a Better Philadelphia.

In matters of city government that are controversial, the schools will provide study on a comprehensive and non-partisan basis. They will not permit the classrooms and assemblies to be used to spread propaganda for one side of any issue. This is in accord with the schools' policy on all social questions.

It will be the objective of the schools to conduct this study so as to develop lasting interests, understandings, and skills concerning city government.

Throughout the years ahead the schools will do their part in maintaining an adequate program of civic education. They will act

with full recognition of the stubborn truth that good government will be maintained only as each generation eagerly shoulders its civic responsibilities.

In order to promote the study of the city charter in all secondary schools, as well as to maintain a continued interest in good city government, the Curriculum Office sponsored a "City Charter Seminar," made up of heads of departments of social studies or representative teachers from each of the junior high, senior high, and vocational-technical schools in Philadelphia. The seminar met for one week, during which time it was addressed by members of the Charter Commission and other leading authorities in municipal government. This fulfilled one purpose of the seminar—to provide it with background information regarding trends in new city government and the pros and cons concerning specific issues pertaining to the various proposals considered by the Charter Commission. A second purpose of the seminar was

to develop initiatory and continuing plans for the study of the charter in each of the secondary schools. Separate working and writing groups were organized in this connection. At the end of the week it was obvious that each of the members was both prepared and inspired to go back to his own school and assume the leadership in organizing and planning appropriate programs and activities.

We have presented an exceptional approach to a very important current issue. There are other vital current problems and issues that occur from time to time which, obviously, cannot be treated in the same manner. Yet, as we have said, for our students to become economically and politically literate citizens, it is highly desirable that they be given the opportunity to study these issues as they occur.

Would readers want to present their views on this problem, along with practices they have found helpful?

Visual and Other Aids

R. T. SOLIS-COHEN

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

British Information Services

30 Rockefeller Plaza
New York 20, N. Y.

CATALOG

Films From Britain 1949-1950. A new catalog of British films lists 100 current titles with a brief synopsis of their contents. It is equipped with a classified index.

Further information concerning the subjects of these films can be found in the libraries of the British Information Services and the British Consulate and in various American commercial depositories.

FILMS

His Fighting Chance. 16 mm. sound film. 10 minutes. Rental \$1.50. Sale price \$27.50.

With Mrs. Eleanor Roosevelt and Michael Redgrave as commentators, this film shows what is being done to aid polio victims. Stills are available on this film.

The People Next Door. 16 mm. sound film. 16 minutes. Rental \$2.50. Sale price \$47.50.

The "little man," who visits a neighboring European country and acquires some understanding of other peoples may, through his interest and good will, contribute to the realization of a peaceful, united Europe.

Queen o' the Border. 16 mm. sound film. Technichrome. 10 minutes. Rental \$2.50. Sale price \$75.00.

Hawick, Queen o' the Border, celebrates for three days each year the memory of old Border battles. However, Hawick is also the home of the famous "Teri" knit sweaters. The film shows in detail the machine and handwork needed to complete each garment.

Farnsborough Air Show, 1949. 16 mm. sound film. 10 minutes. Rental \$1.50. Sale price \$27.50.

The British Aircraft Constructors' Show, recently held at Farnsborough, was attended by representatives of more than sixty countries who came to see the best and latest productions of famous firms. All aircraft were shown in

action—jet bombers and fighters, jet airliners, experimental supersonic planes and the *Brabazon*.

Brabazon, King of the Air. 16 mm. sound film. 9 minutes. Rental \$1.50. Sale price \$27.50.

The world's largest land plane, the *Brabazon*, made its first flight in September, 1949. Driven by eight engines of 2,500 horsepower each, it has a wing span of 230 feet, and can carry 120 passengers. The *Brabazon* has a normal cruising speed of 250 miles per hour at 22,000 feet. The film shows the entire development of the plane from design to take-off. Stills are available on this film.

FILMSTRIPS

35 mm. Filmstrips on *Colonial Empire*:

Colonial Empire: Battle Against Disease. 42 frames—with study guide. Sale price \$1.00.

In the fight against disease in her colonies, Britain employs research, preventive and curative treatment, and the improvement of native living conditions.

Colonial Empire: Battle Against Poverty. 29 frames—with study guide. Sale \$1.00.

The British colonial battle against poverty attacks its causes—diseases, primitive farming methods and undeveloped natural resources.

Colonial Empire: Colonial Economic Development. 37 frames—Captioned—with study guide. Sale \$1.00.

Outlining the pattern of economic development in the Colonial Territories, this strip emphasizes recent schemes for the expansion of agriculture and industry.

Colonial Empire: Introducing the Colonies. 51 frames—with study guide. Sale \$1.00.

The Colonial Territories are those countries within the framework of the British Commonwealth of Nations which have not yet achieved complete self-government. Their history is traced and administrations described in this film strip.

Colonial Empire: Introducing East and Central Africa. 45 frames—Captioned—with study guide. Sale \$1.00.

Herein are presented the peoples, countries and industries of the seven Colonial Territories in East and Central Africa: Somaliland, Kenya, Tanganyika, Uganda, Northern Rhodesia, Nyasaland and the Island of Zanzibar.

Colonial Empire: Introducing the Pacific

Islands. 38 frames—Captioned—with study guide. Sale price \$1.00.

The film strip describes the lives of the people living in the British Pacific dependencies, which comprise some thousands of islands and islets scattered over the Pacific Ocean.

Colonial Empire: Introducing West Africa. 50 frames—with study guide. Sale \$1.00.

The film strip traces the history of the territories of West Africa and shows how they are being prepared for self-government.

Popular Science
Filmstrip-of-the-Month Club
Popular Science Publishing Company

353 Fourth Avenue, New York 10, N. Y.

FILMSTRIPS

The Science of Auto Safety. 45 frame, black-and-white filmstrip.

Produced by the Popular Science Filmstrip-of-the-Month Club, the strip uses simple, familiar experiences to illustrate basic concepts of safety taught in general science, safety and physics curricula.

Conservation Is Everybody's Business. Series of four filmstrips, each over 50 frames long. Color. Kit of Teach-O-Filmstrips and Teaching Guide in a hard cover, book-style file box. \$24.75.

Produced with the aid of the *World Book Encyclopedia* and of educational consultants from the Soil Conservation and Forest Services of the United States Department of Agriculture, this kit of filmstrips is designed for social studies and general science classes of seventh, eighth and ninth grades. The titles of the four strips in this series are: *People, Our Most Valuable Resource; Saving the Soil; Using Our Forests Wisely; Nothing Can Live without Water.*

Official Films, Inc.
25 West 45th Street
New York 19, N. Y.

FILMS
Community "Sing" Films.

In each set of songs—Gypsy, Irish, Spanish or South Sea— atmosphere, humor and a genial, skilful master of ceremonies coaxes the audience to participate.

Castle of the Angels. Two reels, sound film.

Originally a Roman fortress, erected by the Emperor Hadrian, the Castle of the Angels is

the subject of this documentary film. A tour through the castle's great halls and dungeons, music rooms, chapels and the private chambers of the Popes recalls various historic events such as the barbarian invasions, Cellini's imprisonment, etc. The castle's artistic treasures are also displayed—architectural masterpieces, great sculpture and famous paintings.

Coronet News Bureau
65 E. South Water
Chicago, Illinois

FILMS

The following are 16 mm. films.

Two Views on Socialism. One and one half reels. Sound. Color or black-and-white. Educational collaborator: James Harvey Dodd, Professor of Economics and Business Administration, Mary Washington College, University of Virginia.

Designed for students from the junior high school through college, the film attempts to stimulate intelligent discussion on the difference between socialism and capitalism. The arguments raised by socialists against capitalistic society are presented and answered.

How We Cooperate. One reel. Sound. Color or black-and-white. Educational Collaborator: I. Owen Foster, Associate Professor of Education, Indiana University.

Guidance classes in the intermediate grades and senior high school may find this film useful. By means of illustrative situations, the film explains the nature, the value and the obligation of cooperation, and emphasizes purpose, effort and planning in cooperation.

Earning Money While Going to School. One reel. Sound. Color or black-and-white. Educational Collaborator: Carroll A. Nolan, Associate Professor of Business Education, Syracuse University.

As a guide for students who wish part time employment, this film points out that work after school is not harmful—unless it interferes with school or home work. Besides providing the student with extra money, the experience of part time work enhances his skills and helps him to mature.

How To Think. One and one quarter reels. Sound. Color or black-and-white. Educational collaborator: Carter Davidson, President, Union College.

Another guidance film for junior high through college levels, it purports to teach people how to think clearly.

France: Background for Literature. One reel. Sound. Color or black-and-white. Educational collaborator: J. Paul Leonard, President, San Francisco State College.

This film shows the France of the stories of Hugo, Balzac, de Maupassant, Dickens and Poe to students from junior high school through college levels.

Act Your Age. One and one quarter reels. Sound. Color or black-and-white. Educational collaborator: Wendell W. Wright, Dean, School of Education, Indiana University.

In this guidance film students from junior high school to college level are shown common types of infantile reactions and the reasons for emotional immaturity.

You and Your Parents. One and one quarter reels. Sound. Color or black-and-white. Educational collaborator: William E. Young, Divisional Director, University of the State of New York.

Junior and senior high school pupils will be interested in this guidance film because it deals with the issue of parental authority, and the normal and natural process of "growing away" from the family. This film explains that greater freedom and responsibility are given to children on the basis of real maturity, not just chronological age.

Basic Court Procedures. One and one quarter reels. Sound. Color or black-and-white. Educational collaborator: Fred E. Inbau, Professor of Law, Northwestern University.

Two high school students learn about legal procedure and judicial function from a practicing lawyer. The practical learning situation employed is the development of a "criminal case."

The Meaning of Feudalism. One reel. Sound. Color or black-and-white. Educational collaborator: William E. Young, Divisional Director, University of the State of New York.

Intermediate, junior and senior high school and college students may be interested in this film. Jacques, a neighbor and a French boy, approaches the castle to observe and study this relic of feudalism. The film presents the physical elements and the spirit of these times when knights were bold.

Young America Films, Inc.

18 East 41st Street
New York 17, N. Y.

FILMSTRIPS

Children of Early America. Color. \$30.00 per set

Each strip dramatizes a child living during a period of American history, presenting contemporary heroes and social customs.

Set 1:

- An Indian Adventure* (45 frames)
- Washington Invaded* (43 frames)
- Silver Spurs in California* (48 frames)
- Lost in Penn's Woods* (44 frames)
- The Boston Tea Party* (44 frames)
- The Last Delegate* (45 frames)

Set 2:

- Stowaway Around the Horn* (43 frames)
 - By Clipper Ship to San Francisco, 1849
- Wagons to the West* (46 frames)
 - The Santa Fe Trail, 1834.
- The Patroon's Gift* (44 frames)
 - The Dutch in New York, 1660.
- Rescued by Boone* (46 frames)
 - On the Wilderness Trail to Kentucky, 1780.
- Tow-Path Boy* (45 frames)
 - On the Erie Canal, 1827.
- The New Fort At Chekogou* (46 frames)
 - Chicago, 1819.

Products and Industries Series

Set 1: \$16.50 per set of 6.

Each strip traces the industry from the source of its raw material through its processing and explains the many uses of the product and its importance in daily life.

- How We Get Our Iron and Steel* (40 frames)
- How We Get Our Copper* (42 frames)
- How We Get Our Cotton* (44 frames)
- How We Get Our Rubber* (46 frames)
- How We Get Our Coal* (41 frames)
- How We Get Our Aluminum* (46 frames)

FILMS

Glen Wakes Up. One reel. Sound. \$40.00.

This film attempts to stimulate the desire to share responsibilities in home, school and communal groups.

Audio-Visual Materials Consultation Bureau
College of Education, Wayne University
Detroit, Michigan

FILMSTRIP

Cadillac's Village: A Story of Early Detroit.
With Teacher's Guide. \$3.00.

The history of the village is traced from its founding by the French of Fort Ponchartrain and its development until 1760. The strip is suitable for elementary school pupils.

University Microfilms
313 N. First Street
Ann Arbor, Michigan

University Microfilms offers a service for microfilming periodicals at the end of the volume year. The cost of the film copy will be approximately equal to the binding costs of the same material. The microfilm copy of the periodical preserves its content with the minimum use of storage space.

National Association of Manufacturers
14 West 49th Street
New York 20, N. Y.

1949-1950 Listing of Literature and Films

In this 15-page pamphlet listing booklets and leaflets only three motion pictures are mentioned:

The Price of Freedom. 16 mm. Sound. 23 minutes; *Three to be Served.* 16 mm. Sound. 27 minutes; *American Anniversary.* 16 mm. Sound. 15 minutes.

The first stresses the need of the individual's responsibility to preserve freedom, the second shows the business enterprise of some students during vacation, and the third the rise of an immigrant factory worker who appreciates American opportunity.

"SEE AND HEAR" MAGAZINE

Issue 3, Volume 5. Nov. 20, 1949,

contains a special report on audio-visual resources for sports, physical education and recreation. The emphasis is on youth of high school and college levels.

Issue 4, Volume 5. Dec. 15, 1949,

is devoted to primary grades, and includes lists of selected films, filmstrips and recordings suitable for these youngsters.

Issue 5, Volume 5. January 30, 1950,

contains a nationwide survey of state and county programs and audio-visual leadership views.

News and Comment

LEONARD B. IRWIN
Principal, High School, Haddon Heights, New Jersey

THE UNITED NATIONS ON TELEVISION

The Korean affair is an unfortunate development in every respect but one. In that one regard, it has done a genuine service to the cause of education. I am referring to the televising of the sessions of the United Nations Security Council during the summer. Probably never before has the ordinary citizen gained so clear and vivid an idea of the workings of top-level diplomacy, or had such an opportunity to observe history being made day after day. The lunge and parry of the antagonists provided a dramatic sequence that frequently had all the qualities of suspense and emotion of a good Broadway thriller, so that even people who are normally bored by any political affair became interested in it. The drama was even perfectly cast. There was the tight-lipped, impassive villain from Russia, Jakob Malik; the earnest, clear-spoken, determined American, Warren Austin; the British master of the trenchant phrase and the biting wit, Sir Gladwyn Jebb. The scholarly Indian, the tragic Chinese, the blunt Norwegian and the suave Egyptian were among the supporting cast, each the perfect archetype of his nation. Millions of Americans, including youngsters, watched the struggle between the western powers, trying to get action on the Korean question, and the Soviet delegate, obviously there to block any progress except on his own terms.

The educational value of these televised sessions can hardly be overestimated. To Americans whose understanding of the issues between democracy and communism were based wholly on hearsay, the visual evidence of Russian mendacity, obstructionism and "upside-down" logic was highly illuminating. There must have been many who gained a new faith and determination for themselves by seeing the startling contrast between the sincere and outspoken attitude of the majority and the weasel-wording of the Russian delegate. It has commonly been said that Malik returned to the Council not only to obstruct its action but also to use it as a sounding board for Soviet propa-

ganda to Asia. No one can yet say how successful this latter effort has been, but it surely must have had an opposite effect in this country. It is difficult to believe that even party-line Americans could have watched the successive sessions of the Council and not have been proud of Mr. Austin and his colleagues. The experience must have been especially valuable for young Americans who are forming their early impressions of our way of life and our political ideals.

Without question these programs constituted television's greatest public service to date. The fact that they were real, not staged for obvious educational purposes, was not a small factor in their success and value. We can hope that the lesson will not be lost. There is no reason to suppose that the televising of the actual political processes of our state, local and national representatives would not also be salutary and well received. It is probable that there would be strong opposition from some public figures to such a bright light, but they should be able to stand the same kind of publicity that does not awe wrestlers, ball players and the United Nations delegates. Most citizens would not have to view more than three or four sessions of their city council, for instance, before they could distinguish the shoddy from the honest, the demagogue from the statesman, the selfish from the public-spirited. The caliber of public business should benefit immeasurably.

It may be a long time before the direct use of television in the schools becomes practicable. In fact, it may never come; even radio, with its far simpler techniques, has not succeeded in making itself a part of most classrooms. But the educational process is not confined to school hours and school rooms. Children spend a considerable part of their leisure before television screens, and teachers have had little opportunity to tie this educative process in with their formal learning. After all, even a resourceful teacher finds it difficult to use Hopalong Cassidy, Gorgeous George and the roller derby as supplementary material for English, science

or civics. But if the television industry and its backers are encouraged by the reception given to the United Nations debates to extend their facilities to other real-life problems and situations, the schools may secure a powerful ally.

SOUND RECORDING

One of the tools which modern science has made readily available to schools in the past few years is the sound-recorder. Comparatively unknown in public-school procedures before the war, it is rapidly becoming a standard part of the audio-visual aids program. It has many educational uses and new ones are constantly being found. Social science classes use it for recording and replaying radio programs to be discussed; English classes use it for speech improvement; music groups record their own performances for subsequent criticism; permanent recordings may be made of all sorts of school functions, and so on. The necessary equipment is now cheap enough and good enough so that almost any school can afford to include it among its facilities for teaching. The main problem is to decide what type of equipment to buy, for there are now over a hundred types on the market.

To aid the school in this problem of selection, Ned Flanders of the University of Minnesota and Herbert Thelen of the University of Chicago wrote an excellent article for *The School Review* for May. In it they describe and comment on the comparative values of each of the various types of recorders. Under the general head of mechanical process recorders they consider record cutters, plastic disc or belt embossers, and film embossers. All of these have the common factor that the recording material can be used only once. Record cutters are useful for making a permanent record of a short musical number, for instance, which can be played back on any standard phonograph. For secretarial transcriptions and for recording interviews and discussions, the plastic disc or belt embossers are particularly suitable. Film embossers probably would be comparatively less useful in school work because they are designed principally for recording automatically programs lasting from two to eight hours. Flanders and Thelen in their article give all the basic information necessary to help a school decide which particular form of mechanical reproducer will meet its particular needs.

The same kind of critical summation is also applied to the various forms of magnetic recorders. These recorders may use tape, wire or discs and all have the common property of being either permanent or re-usable. The latter feature probably constitutes their greatest value to schools since a permanent recording is seldom needed and the cost of operation is an important factor. Like the mechanical recorders, each type of magnetic recorder has its particular advantages and disadvantages which need to be weighed carefully before purchase.

Since the field of sound-recording on a non-professional basis is so new, it is likely that many school people have not had an opportunity to keep up with its rapid development. The article here referred to is a valuable summary and guide for anyone concerned with the purchase or use of sound-recording apparatus.

THE CASE AGAINST FEDERAL AID TO SCHOOLS

Although the National Education Association and most other professional organizations of teachers are committed to support of a Federal Aid bill, there are a good many educators who are not in favor of it. Their position in general is based on an opposition to any new forms of statism and in particular to any that threaten control of the mind. While the federal treasury is almost irresistible to any organized group that can see a way to tap it, the position of the organization by no means always reflects the convictions of all its membership. The program for federal aid to education is a good example, although it is probable that many teachers have given no great thought to the matter.

John S. Diekhoff of Queen's College has written an admirable presentation of the case against federal aid in the May issue of *The Educational Forum*. He begins his article by pointing out that the inequality between one state and another in the field of education is just as apparent in their housing, health, hospitals, roads, police, local governments, fire protection and a score of other vital services. If federal aid for education is desirable for equalizing state school systems, why, asks Mr. Diekhoff, should the same reasoning not apply to these other things? He purposely carries the analogy to absurd extremes, such as government bonuses for parents in underpopulated areas and for barren couples in overpopulated places;

but he implies that the difference is merely one of degree, not of kind.

The two standard arguments against Mr. Diekhoff's point are that there is something special about schools that makes them the proper concern of government at any level, and that what is proposed is federal aid, not federal control. On the second of these arguments, Mr. Diekhoff points out that when the Constitution and Bill of Rights were made, schools were not thought of as a function of *any* government but rather of the church and the home. Gradually the state governments took over control of locally-established schools, by first granting state aid and then imposing conditions for the receipt of such aid. One naturally and inevitably follows the other and it is unthinkable that the federal government would give money outright to the states without stipulating conditions under which it is to be used. To do so would be merely federal aid to politicians. But who is to define and limit the kinds of stipulations which the federal government should make? Certainly they must include a provision that the money be used as much to teach colored children as white ones. Would it not also be justifiable and right to insist that before a state could receive federal funds its curricula and teachers must be free from seditious taint as defined by Congress? Might not a national set of teacher certification standards seem proper, since federal money would be going to pay teachers' salaries? The federal government would easily think of as many worth-while kinds of regulating stipulations for the states as the states now do for their local school systems. Once the principle of federal aid were established how many states would have the temerity to refuse their share merely in order to avoid a few salutary requirements?

In answer to the argument that schools are in a special class of services and equality of education is particularly important, Mr. Diekhoff says: "What is special about schools, if they are to foster democracy, is that it is especially important for them to be diversely controlled." He argues that they are a form of mass communication like the press, the radio or the pulpit, but to an even greater degree. We are united in opposing any form of government control of these media, but, says Mr. Diekhoff, "it is more reasonable to propose central con-

trol of all newspaper, magazine, and book publication than to propose central control of all schools." Any monopoly over any part of the freedom of thought and teaching can only work to the disinterest of democracy. Centralized control over material things, such as England is experimenting with, is a serious enough step toward statism, but we should be more than careful how we relinquish our individual and local controls over the things of the mind.

What then should be done about the obvious and serious inequalities in our school systems? Mr. Diekhoff's answer is logical if not comforting to those in the poorer states. He is not convinced in the first place that these communities cannot afford good schools; he rather suspects that "a community that values schools above other things will have schools." But even granting that there are states like Mississippi which spend a larger proportion of their income on schools than the richer states and are still inadequately served, the answer, says Mr. Diekhoff, is not direct federal aid. That is treating the symptom, not the disease. The disease is poverty, and the government's efforts should be directed toward a sort of "Point Four" program for our own poor areas in order to raise their standard of living. When this is done the schools will surely get their share and at the same time keep their independence.

Perhaps Mr. Diekhoff is too idealistic and theoretical for an age when "The government is my shepherd; I shall not want" is the revised version of the Twenty-Third Psalm. Perhaps the schools can obtain manna from Washington without having federal ravens supervise its distribution. But no person concerned with education will be wasting the time it takes him to read and ponder Mr. Diekhoff's article.

NOTES

History teachers may be interested in an article by Ruth Trivette in the April number of *Education Digest*, in which the author describes a plan that was used in an American history class in a North Carolina high school to enliven the work. She tells how the group undertook to study the habits and interests of the people during a given historical period by investigating, through committees, their fashions, music, furniture, literature, handicraft, transportation, etc. This was done before study-

ing the political and economic history of the period and greatly increased interest in the latter.

Claude Mitchell, superintendent of schools in West Newton, Pa., reported in *The Clearing House* for March on a test which indicated that many pupils cannot read even the comic strips intelligently. He gave a vocabulary matching test on the meaning of 44 words culled from 24 syndicated strips in one Sunday's edition of two newspapers. Of the 375 pupils from grades 7 to 12 who were tested, none had a perfect score; the median score for seventh-graders was 5.4 and for twelfth-graders 29.

The Columbia University Press (2960 Broadway, New York 27) has issued United Nations Reference Pamphlet No. 1, which is a 60-page summary of the organization and work to date of the General Assembly. There are fifteen pages of information about the framework and procedure of the Assembly, and the remainder is devoted to a summary of decisions and actions taken by the Assembly from 1946 to 1949 inclusive. The material is brief and well-presented and the pamphlet should be a useful classroom reference. The price is fifteen cents.

Any teacher interested in the application of dramatization to social studies work should find many worth-while suggestions in an article

by Blanche Salomon in *High Points* for April. They are particularly applicable to the elementary school level.

The Committee on International Relations of the National Education Association has published a pamphlet entitled: *International Understanding—A Catalogue of 16 mm. Films Dealing with the United Nations, Its Member States and Related Subjects*. Over four hundred recent films are listed, annotated and cross-indexed by subjects. Copies may be obtained for twenty-five cents from the Committee at 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

The Open-Mindedness Study, Curriculum Office of the Philadelphia Public Schools, has recently published a pamphlet, *Open-Mindedness Can Be Taught*, which is a preliminary report of the thought and action of a group of teachers and administrators who were invited to study the possibility of teaching open-mindedness. A second pamphlet, *Toward the Open Mind*, containing excellent suggestions for teachers, has also been published. These pamphlets may be obtained by writing to the Curriculum Office, Room 208, Philadelphia Board of Public Education, Parkway at 21st Street, Philadelphia 3, Pa.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

DAVID W. HARR

Head, Department of Social Studies, Abraham Lincoln High School, Philadelphia

The People Shall Judge; Readings in the Formation of American Policy. Selected and edited by the Staff, Social Sciences I, the College of the University of Chicago. University of Chicago Press, 1949, 2 vols. Vol. I, Pp. xvi, 797; Vol. II, Pp. xiv, 931. \$7.50 per set or \$4.50 per volume.

These two volumes recently published by the University of Chicago as textbooks for the course in the college known as "Social Sciences I" and edited by the teaching staff of the course, represent two more contributions to the rapidly-expanding field of publishing books to fill the need of having source materials in conven-

ient form for use in the "general survey" or "civilization" type course. However, this reviewer feels not only that these two volumes fill this need in a unique and valuable way, but also that these excellent volumes may be used to very great advantage as collateral readings in connection with teaching a course in American history in the more conventional manner.

The People Shall Judge is much more than just a collection of historical readings. These volumes do not represent a new method of teaching American history or civilization, but they do constitute a means of bringing into the

classroom, and utilizing there, the principles of self-education. In a unique manner they express a faith in the usefulness of liberal education to American democracy. As Dean F. Champion Ward says in the *Preface*: "If the United States is to be a democracy, its citizens must be free. If citizens are to be free, they must be their own judges. If they are to judge well, they must be wise.... The business of liberal education in a democracy is to make free men wise. Democracy declares that 'the people shall judge.' Liberal education must help the people to judge well."

The underlying purpose of the volumes is therefore the promotion of intelligent citizenship. They were prepared by a teaching staff who obviously believed that to understand the past is to learn how we came to be what we are. They also believed that for a student to become a wise citizen he must learn more than a mere summary of the facts of American history. Therefore, the editors have brought together in these volumes more than 250 readings which illustrate the great controversies and problems in our past. The selections range from John Cotton and John Locke to General George Marshall and Secretary of State Dean Acheson; from the *Mayflower Compact* to the *United Nations' Charter*. The editors have grouped the readings into thirteen units which emphasize about a dozen significant periods of American history and which focus the student's attention upon the ever-present issues of liberty, equality, and security.

This reviewer feels that the editors have performed an excellent service by their introductions and explanatory notes found in each unit. They help to relate the readings to one another; they provide biographical information about their authors; and they suggest the circumstances of the historical times in which they were written. Whether these volumes are used in the "general" or "survey" programs of a college or in the more orthodox courses in history, political science, or economics, we may be certain of one thing—they will successfully invite the student to see how human judgments, such as those he himself will have to make as a citizen in the near future, have also been very real and live issues in his own country's past. *The People Shall Judge* will certainly encourage the student to acquire a sense of re-

sponsibility about all public issues of his own times and to self-analyze his own standards in an atmosphere of open discussion and free inquiry.

HERBERT R. HERINGTON

Franklin and Marshall College
Lancaster, Pennsylvania

John C. Calhoun. By Margaret L. Coit. Boston, Mass.: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1950. Pp. xxx, 593. Illustrations. \$3.00.

For the historian, Margaret L. Coit offers in the *Life of John C. Calhoun* a condensation of all the political topics of his period from approximately 1810 to 1850. Her hero began his strenuous life of argumentation and political struggle when he entered the South Carolina legislature in 1808, and only finished it as he sat dying in his chair in the Senate while Senator Mason of Virginia read his last speech for him in March, 1850.

In 1804 he graduated at Yale, and studied law at Litchfield, Connecticut; after that he devoted himself as a lawyer and politician to the interests of South Carolina.

In 1811, Calhoun married Floride Calhoun, his rich cousin, and built a home at Fort Hill, where he and his nine children were to dwell for forty years. By 1810, however, he had been called to Congress, and for the Washington season, he usually found lodgings at Mrs. Hill's. In President Jackson's administration he took the fine house, Dumbarton Oaks, in Georgetown. At that time Mrs. Floride Calhoun and the Cabinet ladies would have nothing to do with Mrs. Peggy Eaton; the Cabinet was broken up, and Floride left Washington. Calhoun's favorite daughter, Anna Maria, married Thomas G. Clemson, chargé d'affaires in Belgium, 1844-1851. To her he wrote many confidential letters in his last lonely years. Another daughter was a cripple; several children died in infancy; and his sons were of little credit to their distinguished father.

This biography of nearly 600 pages gives little space to the personal life of Calhoun. It is given over instead to a rather close analysis of the arguments into which Calhoun entered from the time of the War Hawks in 1810 to his dying efforts on secession in 1840. He is described as an elegant and graceful speaker with

a cultivated voice, and an earnestness which charmed and won for him many young followers.

As a leader of the opposition against Northern measures, Calhoun's struggle was strenuous and painful. He opposed the war with England, the war with Mexico, the tariff, the Force Bill, the bank management, abolition, the admission of California, the Wilmot Proviso and all compromises from 1820. To strengthen his supporters, Calhoun worked night and day with his correspondence, consultation, committees and speechmaking. He took no care of his health or diet. In his last ten years he suffered from tuberculosis and other ills. Having lost the expected nomination for the presidency several times his one idea was to strengthen the power of the South so that disunion would not be necessary. His honesty of purpose is stressed by the author, and she quotes from John Quincy Adams' *Diary* (1821): "Calhoun is a man of fair and candid mind, of honorable principles, of clear and quick understanding, of cool self possession, of enlarged philosophical views, and of ardent patriotism."

In various forms this is the tribute his followers echoed in their funeral orations as the funeral train moved south from Washington to Charleston in April, 1850.

His death in Mrs. Hill's boarding house was rather a tragic one. He would not permit his family to be summoned to Washington. Downstairs the gay boarders were having a party, regardless of the fact that the great Senator Calhoun was struggling for breath upstairs, and that his last low whisper was for "The South! the South!"

SARAH A. WALLACE

Washington, D. C.

Punishment Without Crime. By S. Andhil Fineberg. New York, N. Y.: Doubleday and Company, 1949. Pp. v, 337. \$3.00.

We have more or less become accustomed to educational efforts aimed at decreasing the incidence of infantile paralysis, cancer, heart disease and the like. S. Andhil Fineberg, in his book *Punishment Without Crime*, has done as outstanding an educational job in an effort to eliminate the ugly social cancer—prejudice and its attendant discrimination. This is an excellent book and will be read with great profit by

all who are interested in combatting prejudice and building a new sense of neighborliness among people in America.

Seeing prejudice and discrimination in their true light through the eyes of an accomplished scholar in the field of human relations will inspire many to work harder than ever to build a stronger unity. Dr. Fineberg believes this can be done and shows how.

The book is intensely practical in its approach. The many situations in which intelligent and sensitive handling of problems has brought results constitute worthwhile reading for all Americans, especially those who have a definite responsibility toward the wholesome development of youth.

TANNER G. DUCKREY
Assistant to Board of Superintendents
Philadelphia Public Schools
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Achieving Maturity. By Jane Warters. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1949. Pp. xi, 349. \$3.00.

The purpose of this book, written by the Director of Personnel, State Teachers College, Lock Haven, Pennsylvania, is, according to the preface, "to present in nontechnical language certain findings of recent research studies on adolescence and youth and in a way that will help young people to understand themselves and their problems, particularly those problems associated with transition to adulthood." The purpose is admirably achieved.

The writing is straightforward, yet dignified. The typical problems of adolescence are met frankly, and youth's doubts, questions, and frequent suspicions of adult standards are presented fairly. The author's points rarely appear as "good advice," but rather are woven into the discussion as sound conclusions of the research and analysis brought to bear on the problems. The book draws on many excellent research studies on health, personality, marriage, job, and school, but represents the findings in easily understood language.

The necessary task of making the student aware of the sources and the processes of his negative feelings is well done. Frustration, inferiority, fantasy, rationalization, regression and other psychological aspects are discussed,

but the common tendency to emphasize the "abnormal" is avoided. All aspects are woven into a sound, constructive over-all picture of the developing personality.

The fifteen chapters of the book cover physical development, social relationships, relationships with the opposite sex, personality development, vocational choice and school and specialized training—all focused on the individual's role in each. Each chapter contains a rather extensive bibliography, useful to both teacher and student. Some teachers may wish that the references had been annotated, and that specific study aids had been included.

All in all, this book impresses the reviewer as a good example of mature writing on the subject of achieving maturity.

WAYNE C. NEELY

Hood College
Frederick, Maryland

A Concise Survey of United States History in Its World Setting. By Philip Dorf. New York: Oxford Book Company, 1949. \$1.20.

High school students in New York succumb to a Regents' examination fever in their senior year. One imagined cure is the purchase of an outline book to facilitate cramming. The regular text book is so thick and comprehensive that merely looking at it produces a psychosomatic upset and sends the fever up another degree or two. What is clearly indicated is a nice, compact review book containing the gist of the term's work.

Within the last few years, the review book companies who cater to the frightened students have completely departed from the production of outlines and have, instead, produced streamlined textbooks of considerable weight. Mr. Dorf's outline, one of the best, adds up to 526 pages, closely written and intelligently organized. It is not a *review* book but another textbook in soft covers. Does it serve a need? Well, you have to admit that the factual material can be more easily identified than in our more discursive textbooks. The latter are written sometimes from an educational viewpoint, rather than from a viewpoint of cramming information into students in order to pass a Regents' examination. It would be a good thing if the outline publishers stopped following the American automobile manufacturers in



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JULIAN ARONSON

Seward Park High School
New York, N. Y.

Guidance Handbook for Teachers. By Frank C. Davis and Pearle S. Norris. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1949. Pp. 344. \$3.50.

The purpose of this book is implied in its title, *Guidance Handbook*, and that is what it really is, a handbook for beginning teachers and those who do not have a working knowledge of guidance. It is intended to facilitate the guidance work not only by putting the tools within the grasp of the teacher but in giving him definite information as to their use in both the homeroom and classroom.

Considering its size, the book is remarkable for its scope as it deals with almost every phase of guidance in the school systems of today. It is attractively written, well organized and unhampered with unnecessary technical definitions. The material presented is factual and is

the result of years of experience of the two authors.

The philosophy accepted is that real education is a scientific process and guidance is a function to be exercised as a regular part of the school system. In caring for the needs of the individual child, three areas in the field of guidance are considered: getting the facts, evaluating the information, and applying it; these are so handled that no doubt is left in the mind of the reader.

The book includes the implementation of such fundamental activities as: (1) Inauguration of a testing program and administration of a pupil questionnaire. (2) Installation of cumulative records. (3) Holding counseling interviews with pupils who are in special need of help. These make the volume a *must* to every schoolman.

Special features such as: The Seating Chart, Individual Pupil Capacity Achievement, and the Scattergram charts enable the teacher to determine the accomplishments of his pupils so that he may compare ability with achievement. These deserve special commendation as they add new tools to the functioning of guidance.

References, bibliographies and thought-provoking questions at the end of each chapter complete the book.

The only criticism is that the volume offers so much material that one must choose what he can digest and manipulate, but is that a fault?

NICHOLAS T. HAGALY

Bristol Junior-Senior High School
Bristol, Pennsylvania

Rural Sociology. By Lowry Nelson. New York:
American Book Company, 1948. Pp. xvi, 567.
\$4.25.

In reviewing a sociology textbook two questions must frequently be faced by a reviewer. First, Is there a need for the book? In answer to this question, few social scientists will deny the need for constant re-analysis of the fundamental structural and functional patterns in and through which human interaction and behavior takes place. Second, Does the book answer that need adequately? It has become almost traditional now to select as a major pattern for analysis the rural setting or aspect of any given culture. Mr. Nelson follows this tradition with clarity and directness of style.

Rural Sociology is carefully organized and documented, and in contrast with many textbooks has a thorough index which will be meaningful to the student who brings into a course in this field a fundamental knowledge of the terminology and classifications utilized in introductory sociology.

On the whole Dr. Nelson's *Rural Sociology* should be received enthusiastically by instructors in this field, particularly those teachers seeking a text which orients and grounds the student in principles usually covered in introductory courses in sociology as well as presenting the fundamentals of rural sociology.

LINCOLN ARMSTRONG

University of Delaware
Newark, Delaware

HELPFUL CLASSROOM AIDS GENERAL

The 1950 copy of the Denoyer-Geppert Company catalog announces the publication of a new series of social studies wall maps entitled "Our America," edited by Edgar B. Wesley of the University of Minnesota. A complete list can be obtained by writing to Denoyer-Geppert Company, 5235 Ravenswood Avenue, Chicago 40, Illinois.

The Family Welfare Association of America, 122 East 22nd Street, New York 10, N. Y., has issued excellent material on various aspects of the family and family problems. Outstanding pamphlets are: *New Emphasis on Cultural Factors*, price 73 cents; *Symptoms of Personality Disorders*, by S. Mouchly Small, price 60 cents; *Rural Case Work Services*, by Marjorie J. Smith, price 50 cents.

High school teachers of the social studies especially in the Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, system will welcome the article "Teaching American History Through Its Period Music," in the April, 1949, issue of THE SOCIAL STUDIES by Nora D. Christianson as a valuable addition for Question Four, Unit XIII, in the new course of study.

PAMPHLETS

Democracy and You, published by Charles E. Merrill Company, 400 S. Front Street, Columbus 15, Ohio. Price: 1-10 copies, 20c each; 10-500 copies, 15c each; 500 or more, 10c each.

This new handbook of Democracy can be used

THE CONTEMPORARY WORLD

By CLARA LOUISE DENTLER, High School, Redlands, California

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Price 35 cents, an inexpensive reference book.

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Twilight in India. By Cervee Baronte, New

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Earlier Diplomatic History. By Sir Charles Petrie. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1949. Pp. xxii, 251. \$2.75.

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The Reign of King John. By Sidney Painter. Baltimore, Maryland: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1949. Pp. ix, 397. \$5.50.

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The People Shall Judge: Readings in the Formation of American Policy. Selected and edited by the Staff, Social Sciences I, the College of the University of Chicago. Chicago, Illinois: The University of Chicago Press, 1949. Volume I, Pp. xvi, 797. \$4.50. Volume II, Pp. xiv, 931. \$4.50. Both volumes, \$7.50.

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